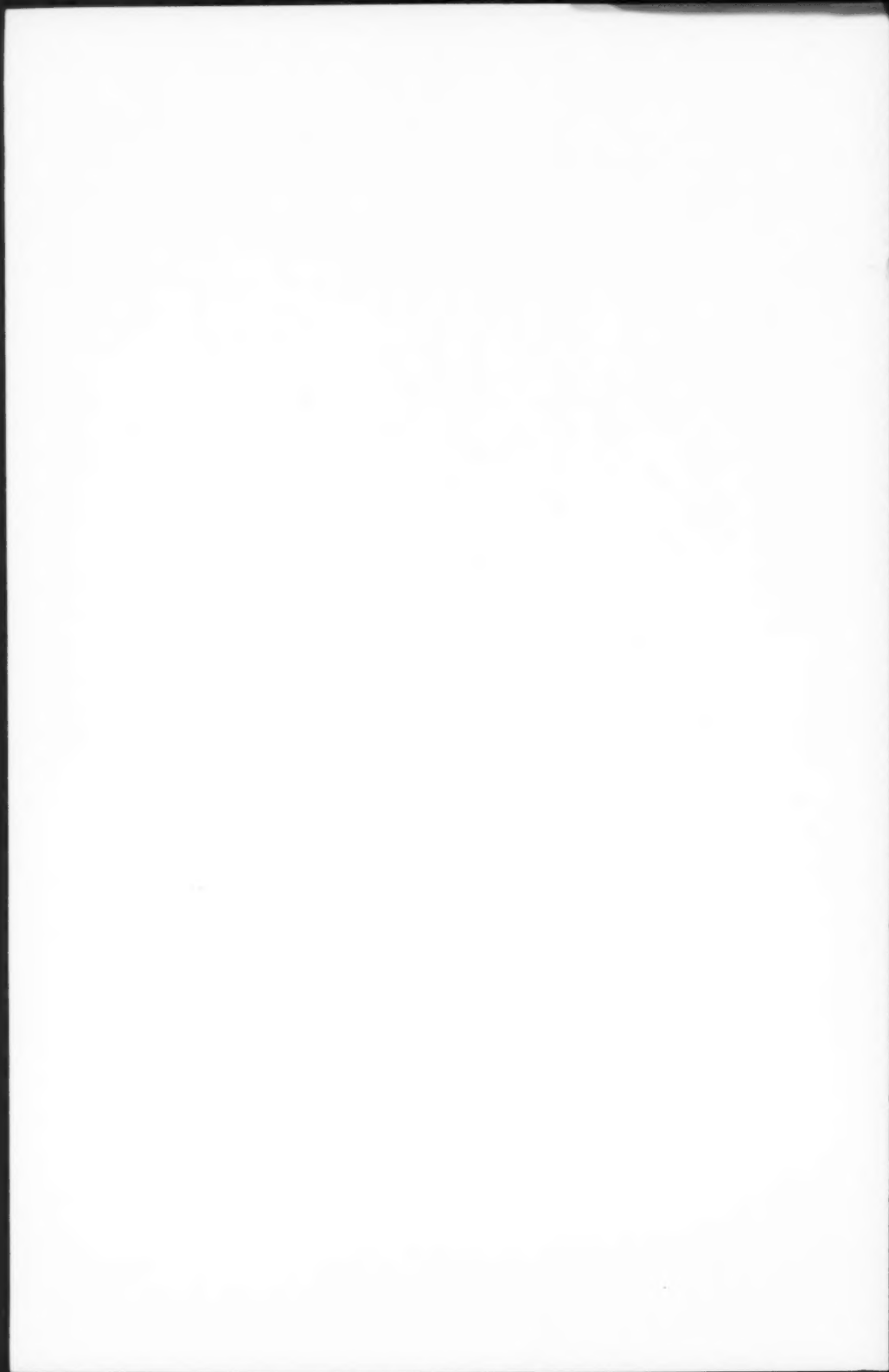


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General Education: a Revival

EARL J. McGRATH

The author argues that in this age of rapidly proliferating knowledge, only a revitalized and expanded system of interdisciplinary education can produce the well-rounded citizens we need

In 1926 the distinguished American historian James Harvey Robinson wrote that "Even the more significant scientific discoveries, especially those of recent years, have not penetrated into our general education, and are entirely disregarded in most serious discussions of social problems. And yet an imposing accumulation of critical information of wide bearing is at our disposal which might become an active factor in the readjustment of the troubled relations of man."¹ In a few words this statement sums up a grave problem which continues to face academic institutions and the society of which they are an indispensable part. And the situation is much more acute in 1959 than it was in 1926. The sheer bulk of knowledge produced in all the increasingly specialized branches of learning has in recent decades expanded geometrically, and much of this useful knowledge is totally unknown even to the average college graduate.

Some colleges and universities, aware of their primary duty of raising the intellectual level of the electorate, have made valiant attempts to use their resources in cultivating the knowledge and the intellectual skills essential in the maintenance of a competent citizenry. Even the best efforts of these institutions have, however, produced many graduates arrestingly ignorant of what Ortega y Gasset called "the vital system of ideas of their time." Commenting on the neglect of general education in modern society, Ortega adds: "Civilization has had to await the beginning of the twentieth century to see the astounding spectacle of how brutal, how stupid and yet how aggressive is the man learned in one thing and fundamentally ignorant of all else."

¹Address given at meeting on general education held at Drake University, 20 March 1959.

Professor Robinson saw clearly the great danger in the social process known as the "culture lag," that is the time between the discovery of new knowledge and its dissemination among the people generally. As an astute observer of the ebb and flow of events in the past several centuries he was keenly aware that ever since the political, industrial and social revolutions of the eighteenth century the people generally have dominated public policy through the legislative process. It remained for a later, trenchant critic of the contemporary scene, however, to describe the perils inherent in political democracy, in which long delays occur when the executive branch of the government ought to act, and knows how to act, but is prevented from doing so until an ill-informed public can comprehend the meaning of the events of the day.

Speaking of the inadequacy of knowledge on large public issues among citizens generally, Walter Lippmann, in *The Public Philosophy*,⁸ says we need the kind "of knowledge—not to speak of an experience and a seasoned judgment—which cannot be had by glancing at newspapers, listening to snatches of radio comment, watching politicians perform on television, hearing occasional lectures, and reading a few books. It would not be enough to make a man competent to decide whether to amputate a leg, and it is not enough to qualify him to choose war or peace, to arm or not to arm, to intervene or to withdraw, to fight or negotiate."

Unless the people have at least an elementary understanding of the issues of public policy, which unfortunately change from day to day because of the dynamic world in which we live, they are confused, intransigent and dilatory to the point of endangering the national welfare. Hence general ignorance causes governmental impotence or, worse still, deviousness which is excused by the absolute need for immediate action before the public can understand what is at stake. There are mechanical devices which can be used to speed up legislative action. But the only genuinely efficacious cure for this debilitating ailment of democracy is a wider understanding among the people of the broad range of problems which from day to day require informed and decisive action.

This problem was dramatically revealed by President Eisenhower when, in discussing the Berlin situation, he said: "Fellow Americans, of one thing I am sure: that we have the courage and capacity to meet the stern realities of the present and the future. We need only to understand the issues and to practice the self-discipline that freedom demands."⁹ And let it not be assumed that these matters involve knowledge only in the political and social sciences. They are often policies requiring an

understanding of science and technology, as discussions in our government have clearly demonstrated since the discovery of atomic energy and the development of satellites. The decisions to be made must also take into consideration the values in our culture, an understanding of which can best be gained through an acquaintance with the philosophy, history and religious foundations of Western civilization.

All this adds up to the conclusion that a broad general grasp of modern knowledge among our people is the *sine qua non* of intelligent public policy and perhaps of national survival. The same intellectual preparation is required in the narrower sphere of private life. This situation presents an educational challenge fatefully connected with the preservation of free government, free enterprise and free personal action. More than that, it is a world problem, for in increasingly wide areas of the globe the shackles of colonial status, with all its political and social restrictions, are being struck off. Yet the inhabitants of many of these regions do not even have the advantages of the general education which the elementary schools of Europe and the United States have provided for all for the greater part of a century or longer. Many leaders in these countries realize that the chief factor in the long run in the establishment and the preservation of democratic government and the creation of prosperity in their home lands is not military or economic aid, important as these may now be. Instead only the provision of fundamental education for all citizens can provide for them a guarantee of the desired elevation of standards of living at home and an enhanced position in the international community.

Thoughtful observers of the contemporary scene at home and abroad are asking whether educational institutions can and will assume the responsibilities which, in this dynamic situation, are peculiarly theirs. The free nations are now in conflict with a system which, because of its essential character, relies much less on individual opinion than on governmental dictation. In this situation the dominant question is: Can the general level of culture be raised sufficiently in our own and in other democratic societies to make possible for the people in general the enlightened and swift decisions which in a totalitarian regime are made instantaneously by a few dominant political figures?

There is concrete evidence that a segment of the educational profession has been aware of the crucial need for a more generous general education for all youth. For more than a quarter century a number of colleges and universities have been revising their undergraduate curricula with

the dominant purpose of reducing the narrowness and intense specialization which has hitherto characterized much undergraduate instruction. The resulting innovations have varied in comprehensiveness and in quality in accordance with local leadership, vision, resources and institutional purposes. That a genuine revolution in the college curriculum has occurred no informed person can doubt.

Unfortunately there have been some notable examples of retrogression in prominent institutions—of returning the control of the undergraduate curriculum to those who are primarily interested in specialized graduate education and accordingly in redesigning the college curriculum to serve their own academic interests rather than the larger purposes of society. The college at the University of Chicago has been basically modified to permit students earlier specialization and identification with the vocationally-oriented graduate departments. At Columbia policies of faculty promotion and tenure, which insist on research and publication rather than effective undergraduate teaching, seem calculated to undermine the quality of the oldest and perhaps most distinguished program of general education in America. Superlatively good teachers find it necessary to go elsewhere to obtain the rewards they deserve for good teaching, and the ambitious neophytes in the profession are driven away from college teaching by the spectre of professional, personal and family privation. At Minnesota the program of general education, so vigorous and promising for years, was a year or so ago gutted by the representatives of specialized departmental interests.

These signs disturb the many dedicated men and women who have given their thought and their energies to the advancement of a cause so closely related to our personal and national welfare. Moreover the putative educational exigencies following in the train of the satellite launchings have caused some educators and laymen as well to minimize the value of all instruction that does not clearly assist in regaining our scientific pre-eminence. Thus far these sentiments have not been reflected in material curriculum changes, and the general atmosphere of deliberateness among thoughtful laymen suggests that they see the continued need for the broad education of youth for all the varied activities and responsibilities of life. The dangers to the general education enterprise are therefore not so great from without as from within those institutions where departmental empire-building continues unabatedly to militate against general education.

There are hopeful developments in American society—political, eco-

nomic and sociological—which may more than offset these retrogressive influences. To appreciate the potential force of these developments one need only read one of the most penetrating books of our time, *The Affluent Society* by Professor John Kenneth Galbraith of Harvard University. Professor Galbraith says much about the altered view needed in analyzing and evaluating the economic changes of recent years. But the remarks he makes about the social process itself, about the means by which “the conventional wisdom” is altered, are particularly germane to any discussion of the kind of college instruction we may expect to develop in the years ahead.

Speaking of the obstructive force of tradition on social process, Professor Galbraith says that “we adhere, as though to a raft, to those ideas which represent our understanding. This is the prime manifestation of vested interest. For a vested interest in understanding is more preciously guarded than any other treasure. . . . It will be convenient to have a name for the ideas which are esteemed at any time for their acceptability. . . . I shall refer to these ideas henceforth as the conventional wisdom.” He goes on to say that “The conventional wisdom having been made more or less identical with sound scholarship, its position is virtually impregnable.” But the important view that he expresses bearing on our present considerations is that “The enemy of the conventional wisdom is not ideas but the march of events. The fatal blow to the conventional wisdom comes when the conventional ideas fail signally to deal with some contingency to which obsolescence has made them palpably inapplicable. This, sooner or later, must be the fate of ideas which have lost their relation to the world.”

The reason why the day for a renewed interest in general education is at hand is simply that many of the dominant ideas and practices in undergraduate colleges are no longer relevant to the educational and social problems of our time. The “march of events” in society at large seems destined to push them aside in the advance toward new goals. Some of these social forces deserve analysis in any serious discussion of the future of general education.

First, one of the most impressive, and at the same time disturbing, features of our culture is the prospective demand for college education. It is paradoxical but nevertheless true that the realization of one of the most cherished dreams of the American people, the opportunity for education for all according to their needs and interests, is at the root of many of our most vexing educational problems. Already a quarter to a

half of the youth of college age, depending on the community, continue their education beyond high school. These percentages will continue to rise. Their significance is magnified when it is recognized that the percentages will be figured on the basis of an ever-increasing population.

There is no need to document statements on increased college enrolments. Reliable economic, sociological and political evidence forces the conclusion that institutions of higher education will have thousands of additional students in the years ahead. A large percentage of these students will properly be interested not in a life of scholarship, for which much of the present instruction in the colleges is preparatory, but rather in education for the activities and responsibilities of life common to all and in education needed to earn a living. Many of these students, in fact, will spend only two years in education beyond the high school. In this time they will expect and, if institutions of higher education take their responsibilities seriously, they must receive a general education that is appropriate to their own personal needs and to the demands of social and political competence described by Mr. Lippmann. One school of thought, common among educators on the eastern seaboard, would solve the problem of increasing enrolments by sending all students below superior academic or verbal ability to technical institutions or to immediate employment. These utterances are the death rattle of an aristocratic conception of education suitable in a society of preferment and discrimination but ill-fitted to our dominant social philosophy. It may not expire for a long time, but its gasps for breath will grow weaker and weaker and less audible in educational forums. A general education suited to the needs of a cross-section of youth of college age is the dominant need of the hour.

Second, there is a growing awareness among the graduates of the colleges and the students in them that the highly specialized instruction they have been subjected to prepares them inadequately to live intelligently except in a very narrow sphere of the complex world in which they move. They are mystified and helpless as they encounter the problems which are the lot of all men in a democratic society where each must make up his own mind or surrender his heritage of personal freedom. There is a pervading fear among our people that stems not from a lack of courage to face the hard realities of life but rather from a feeling of walking in darkness without a light. It is an insecurity stemming from ignorance, incompetence and frustration.

Many citizens really want to grasp the meaning of the kaleidoscopically changing events of the day, of domestic and international conflicts, of scientific developments, of their own personal existence in its relation-

ships to other human beings and the infinite cosmos. They want to know something more than how to make a dollar: they would like help in trying to make a life. Citizens generally, therefore, are perhaps uncritically but yet genuinely concerned about extending the scope and sharpening the objectives of higher education. With proper leadership they will demand for their sons and daughters a fuller, more generous education than their own.

A third factor favoring a more prominent status for general education in the coming years is paradoxically the shortage of college teachers. Studies of the probable need for and supply of teachers in the next decade indicate that even the most optimistic estimates reveal a shocking shortage. There is no visible way to close the gap under current practices in the graduate schools of arts and sciences. Indeed the situation will become worse because the attractions of government and industrial research and of teaching highly specialized advanced courses in university departments have for some years been drawing those who receive the Ph.D. degree away from the undergraduate colleges. This is especially true in the natural sciences and mathematics, where opportunities outside academic institutions have the greatest drawing power. Increasing enrolments will concomitantly intensify the competition for teachers. Many colleges will have to take those Ph.D.'s who in the judgment of their sponsors do not have the greatest imagination in research. This may be an advantage. More likely those with only the master's degree will be employed.

A National Education Association study, showing that the fall in the level of advanced training among new college teachers has already begun, states that "The Research Division has brought to light an alarming body of evidence—proof that college and university staffs are suffering a steady deterioration, as indicated by the formal preparation of newly employed full-time teachers. The drop in quality runs through all fields of instruction and is suffered by all types of institutions. . . . In a period of three years there has been a drop of 25.2 per cent in the group of new teachers holding the doctor's degree."

Faced with this crippling shortage of instructors, the colleges will rightly demand that the graduate schools accelerate the process by which advanced degrees are obtained. The number of persons who complete the course work for the degree and then work in dilatory fashion for years on a dissertation is shocking. Dean Jacques Barzun, in his report to the president of Columbia University in 1958, stated that "A sidelight on our practice was given by an inquiry directed to all faculty sponsors

of dissertations. The information sought was simple: how many dissertations under your care are being written on the campus? how many off the campus? Of the latter, how many are making actual progress and how many are dormant? The answers showed that a great many dissertation subjects were in a state of suspended animation. Instructors whose files had been carefully kept were thus sponsoring veritable regiments of candidates—theoretically.”

A critical review of the facts suggests that there ought to be a different type of graduate program for many of these people and for others who would enter college teaching if a suitable educational program were available. If we are to have an adequate supply of properly educated teachers of general education, such a program should introduce prospective college teachers to the world of scholarship through instruction in a broader range of subject matter than is customary today. It should involve a dissertation based on wide reading and critical analysis of existing knowledge rather than on an alleged original contribution to knowledge, which so many present theses are not. It should cultivate a lasting interest in new knowledge as revealed in the learned journals and a capacity to adapt this knowledge to the purposes of undergraduate teaching. It should give some experience in teaching. With a thorough command of their subjects, a continuing intellectual curiosity and a desire to keep abreast of their field, these Ph.D.'s would make ideal college teachers—far better than many who now treat their teaching as something that must be endured so that they can continue their researches on esoteric subjects. Until thousands of such teachers are available, higher education for many young people must remain inaccessible, appallingly inferior or fragmented and irrelevant to the issues of the day.

Whether the graduate schools of arts and sciences will assume this responsibility for dealing with a national problem of major importance seems doubtful. One university has for some years had a notable program of this general type, at least in the social sciences. Syracuse has turned out over fifty persons with the Doctor of Social Science degree through its Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, and they have invariably found ready and satisfactory employment. But this has regrettably not been common. Dozens of distinguished educators—Eliot, Harper, Gilman, White, Tappan, Jordan, Jessup, Keppel and latterly Robert Hutchins and Howard Mumford Jones—have urged the separation of training for college teaching and training for research and advanced instruction, but in vain.

Now, however, there will be new factors in "the march of events." The pressure for college teachers, especially those capable of handling basic instruction in the three major divisions of knowledge, will be so great that some institutions will feel a moral responsibility to initiate special programs for college teachers leading to the doctor's degree. The history of higher education clearly shows, however, the recalcitrance of the present graduate faculties in this matter and suggests that another agency may have to assume this pressing responsibility. If so, history will only be repeating itself, since the present teacher training programs at the lower levels came into existence when the colleges and universities failed to take the responsibility for this type of education. It may confidently be expected, and in the defaulting of the graduate schools in the present social crisis it may be desired, that schools of education will here see a service which they must perform. In some ways this is unfortunate, for many schools of education do not now have the subject-matter teachers to offer the necessary instruction. The pressure of circumstances will, however, probably correct this situation. Graduate students in education can be sent into subject-matter departments for courses not internally available, and some institutions will have the resources to add appropriate subject-matter teachers to their faculties. Until now some college presidents have been reluctant to appoint subject-matter teachers who hold degrees from schools of education, but the exigencies of the situation and the improving quality of such degrees will doubtless wear away this timidity. In any event, in view of present attitudes and policies in graduate schools of arts and sciences, this seems the only alternative in many institutions to having no teachers at all for the thousands of youths coming along.

These developments ought to strengthen general education programs because such faculty members will have a keener interest in undergraduate teaching and a broader preparation for it than those who have pursued a program involving highly specialized instruction and research on a narrow problem. Especially in the junior colleges will these new instructors be welcome, for that is where the demands for teachers of general courses will be greatest in the coming years.

The outlook for the continued development of general education, therefore, seems more promising now than a year or two ago. If the movement is to have renewed vitality and more defensible purposes, however, certain shifts in emphasis are required.

In the first place there ought to be less stress on the acquisition of large

bodies of fact and more on the mastery of principles, the cultivation of habits of intellectual workmanship and the stimulation of a persistent intellectual curiosity. Some of us who were early concerned with broadening the base of liberal education were excessively preoccupied with knowledge. This was a natural reaction to the extremely narrow beginning courses in the various disciplines. The error of including too many meagerly related facts in survey courses was quickly corrected, but even then a tendency persisted to describe general education in terms of an acquaintance with the widest variety of subject matter. Courses characteristically included, and today include, vast quantities of detail needed neither to derive valid generalizations nor to prepare the average citizen to deal with the problems of daily life.

To a much greater extent than hitherto, general courses must be structured around key ideas and must give experience of the intellectual processes by which those ideas have been produced. Two good examples of this kind of instruction can be found in the science courses developed some years ago by President Conant at Harvard and by Dean French at Colgate. These courses introduced the student to only a few very significant topics or experiments, which through exhaustive treatment exhibited the methods employed by the scientist and the results of experimentation in the further extension of scientific knowledge. Similarly courses in literature have been changed from a wide survey of English writings from the earliest days to the present to an intensive treatment of a few great works. This kind of instruction need not be superficial, for as Archbishop Whately pointed out a hundred years ago, "To have a general knowledge of a subject is to know only its leading truths, but to know these not superficially but thoroughly, so as to have a true conception of the subject in its great features; leaving the minor details to those who require them for the purposes of their special pursuit. There is no incompatibility between knowing a wide range of subjects up to this point, and some one subject with the completeness required by those who make it their principal occupation. It is this combination which gives an enlightened public; a body of cultivated intellects, each taught by its attainments in its own province what real knowledge is, and knowing enough of other subjects to be able to discern who are those that know them better."

The guiding principle then in the organization of general education for the future ought to be to select such subject matter as will introduce the student to a generous portion of the basic principles, experiments and

ideas in the major disciplines, but to make no attempt to lay the complete foundation of detail needed by the student who expects to spend his life in the field.

Secondly, stress should be placed on the methodology employed by those who create new knowledge in the various areas of scholarship and on the social implications of their findings. One of the lamentable features of instruction in the sciences, for example, and to a degree in the social sciences as well, is the inability or unwillingness of those who have studied science to apply its objective methods in analyzing and solving the problems we all encounter in our daily lives. This failure results in large part from the teaching practice of not discriminating between the *methods* and the *facts* of science. It is not surprising that many persons, even college graduates, tend to confuse technology, the application of basic scientific facts to a practical problem, with the intellectual procedures employed in identifying a problem for investigation, devising a method for attacking it and generalizing from the data assembled. They do not acquire the habit of using these procedures to deal with human situations.

Each of the disciplines—natural science, social science, literature, the fine arts—has some methodology in common with the others, but it also has some of its own peculiar intellectual skills. The student cannot acquire all the knowledge of his time, nor even a small portion of it. And since knowledge grows as rapidly as bacteria, the best one can expect of a program of general education is that it will provide a small corpus of basic facts in the field and cultivate the intellectual processes which can be employed in the extension of one's own knowledge in relation to life situations as they occur.

This reorientation of instruction requires more concern with creative intellectual skills and less with the rote acquisition of large masses of detailed information. It also means devising methods of teaching and learning which make the student a full and active participant in the learning process rather than an inanimate receptacle into which data are poured. To a degree these assumptions involve teaching "about a subject" rather than leading the student through the labyrinth of detailed fact created by thousands of scholars working for a lifetime. Scientists particularly object to courses "about science." But for thousands of students who are coming to our campuses in the years ahead, most of whom are not intending to be scientists, this is the only attainable objective. These citizens must know something about the history of science, something

about its philosophy and methodology, and how these intellectual activities of the past 300 years have basically changed the character of Western society and the thinking of the average person. This limited knowledge and an understanding of the methods of science is all we can hope to impart in the time available to the eighty or ninety per cent of students who are not going to enter science or a related occupation.

A third shift in emphasis concerns the nurturing of an intense and lasting curiosity in things of the mind. In this respect our graduates compare unfavorably with those of foreign universities. This objective has two facets. The first is the stimulation of a desire to know—the creation of a compulsion, if you please, to be restive under the bridle of ignorance, a feeling of moral obligation to be as intelligent as one's native capacity permits. The other is the cultivation of the habit of, and the capacity for, sustained reflection. There ought to be some type of quality-control process which could be applied to the products of our minds just as the mathematicians have devised procedures for controlling the efficiency of productive processes in the factory. The percentage of our thoughts which ought to be cast out as poorly shaped, half finished or outright defective would often be much larger than a successful manufacturer could tolerate.

As a people we have been especially cavalier about planning and thinking things through because of our prodigal resources and our desire to deal expeditiously with practical problems. We have prodigiously invented new products and processes. If they turned out badly we have prodigally thrown them away and launched into others. These practices have been transferred to our habits of thinking. We are impatient with people who wish to examine assumptions, abide by the rules of logic and employ the powers of reflection in a more complete analysis of a situation. We often look upon them as impractical and visionary. Speedily abandoning a useless or inferior idea in favor of a new concept is a valuable quality. But not examining new ideas critically and reflectively is a primitive and expensive quality. General education ought therefore to cultivate an abiding intellectual curiosity and the habit of reflection.

We have failed to attend adequately to these reflective processes because higher education seems to be based on two patently invalid assumptions. One is that those who graduate from our colleges and universities are never going to learn anything on their own after their formal education ceases, and the other that, since this is so, as much as possible must be crammed into the four-year college period. That the first as-

sumption has had some validity is demonstrated by the lives of a large percentage of college graduates. Polls conducted by Dr. George Gallup's organization reveal clearly, first that the average college graduate is grossly ignorant of much that is happening in the world today, and second that he is making no attempt to inform himself. A high proportion of graduates, when queried about domestic and international policies impinging directly on their own lives and the lives of their fellow citizens, revealed a shocking ignorance. Moreover, when their use of non-working time and their habits of reading were studied, it was apparent that their college experience had not cultivated an interest in the urgent issues and dramatic events of the day or a desire to devote their intellectual energies to anything more elevated than playing bridge, reading the newspaper (the editorial page not included) or memorizing the new highs in the stock market reports.

The practice of spoon-feeding college students and the implication created that everything has to be learned in four years have nurtured these habits of intellectual sloth and insensitivity to the genuine joy of intellectual enlargement. Here again social forces outside the academic halls may alter ancient custom. It is clear that there will not be enough teachers to nurse each student through the pains of intellectual growth. He will more and more have to fend for himself. This is a practical necessity. It is also a theoretical desideratum. A few interesting attempts to place more responsibility for his education on the student himself are already being made.

One such plan has recently been announced by four institutions—Amherst College, Smith College, Mount Holyoke College and the University of Massachusetts—cooperating in the establishment of a new college based on recognition of the coming enormous demand for undergraduate education. There are many admirable features in this plan, but the one particularly pertinent to this discussion is the emphasis placed on the student's responsibility for his own education. The plan specifically attempts to introduce the processes of self-teaching into the lower-levels of a college devoted to general education. For some years attempts have been made to establish tutorial, preceptorial and independent-reading programs in the upper years of colleges. This plan however begins at once in the freshman year to capitalize on individual initiative and to cultivate independence in work and in ideas.

These statements from the announcement entitled "The New College Plan" clearly reveal the importance attached to independent intellectual

development. "It has long been the goal of liberal arts colleges to prepare students for a lifetime of self-education. The means of education, however, frequently come to obstruct its goals. What we want to create is independent initiative and intellectual enterprise. Yet too often, faculty complaints about 'spoon-feeding' go with a course program which minutely prescribes what the students shall do and gives them so much to do that they have little time left for independent work. . . . The New College plan is based on the conviction that the average student entering one of the better colleges is capable of far more independence than he now demonstrates, but that he must be given proper training and proper opportunities. It will be a major goal of the College to develop and sustain a style of life which will make it habitual for students to work together in groups, and individually, without constant recourse to the faculty. . . . The New College curriculum is designed to establish a pattern of independent behavior by intensive training in it at the outset and to reinforce the habit of initiative thereafter by continuing to provide situations which call for it."

The exigencies of the coming years, as well as theoretical pedagogical considerations argue for a widespread adoption of these practices in all college instruction but especially in programs of general education where all students will presumably have their first experiences and perhaps their last in their education beyond high school.

Something has already been said about the need for teachers of general education. Even if there were a fully adequate corps of competent teachers available, the offering of suitable courses for the purposes of general education would at present be difficult. This is so because of the paucity of suitable teaching materials. In spite of the arresting curricular changes of the past quarter century, the majority of college textbooks are still written by persons whose primary interest is in demonstrating their scholarly achievements, in research and in teaching those who, like themselves, intend to spend their lives in limited academic activities. When Mr. Conant designed his course in science at Harvard, he encountered the problem of finding suitable textual matter and finally had to prepare an entire new body of scientific case studies for the purpose. The needs will vary from college to college, depending on its purposes, its resources, its faculty and the kinds of students it attracts, but certain general characteristics of the needed teaching material can be identified.

Texts will be needed in natural science and social science composed of discussions of great experiments, of conceptual inventions, of theo-

retical insights which gave impetus to new scientific developments or to basically reoriented thinking. The relativity theories of Einstein, the Heisenberg principle of uncertainty, the advances in knowledge of the structure of the atom are cases in point. Ideally these materials ought to be produced in small paper-back editions. Some of the original treatises might also be reprinted in this form. Each publication should show the problem which presented itself and how the investigator designed his procedures for investigating it. If the mistakes he made which required a redesign were revealed, this would be especially important in showing that the scientist is not omniscient and that endless labor may be involved in false starts. There should be a consideration of the experiment's significance in further advancement of the scientific enterprise, the impact of the new developments on the thinking of people generally and on the social structure. All this should rest on a discussion of the epistemology and metaphysics of science to give the student some idea of what truth actually means to the scientist and how he comes to know it.

The same general procedure could be used in the social sciences with more emphasis on contemporary social problems and the research which illuminates them.

In the field of literature, inexpensive editions of great works, ancient and modern, are needed; and fortunately they are becoming available in abundance. No American can any longer excuse his ignorance of great literature on the ground that he cannot afford it, because most of it is available now for less than the price of the gasoline which he burns up on a casual Sunday drive into the country. The publishing firms deserve commendation from all Americans—especially those in the academic profession—for making the great mass of significant literature available at prices all who really want to read can afford to pay. Since general education courses in literature ought to introduce the student to various types, styles and forms of literature through the intensive study of a few exemplary works rather than through a review of all authors from Beowulf to Hardy, as was earlier the fashion, these new publications will be indispensable. There are however still great opportunities for publishers working closely with leaders in general education to issue new materials constantly fitted more closely to the needs of the hundreds of thousands of youths who will be receiving such instruction in our four-year and community colleges.

No one can discuss the impact of growing enrolments on programs of general education without referring to the arresting possibilities in the

use of television. The enrolments in freshman courses will run into the hundreds and thousands in some institutions. Teachers, as we have observed, will be in short supply. Television experiments at Pennsylvania State University and at WTTW in Chicago have shown conclusively that a range of subjects from science to the fine arts can be learned just as effectively through TV as in the normal classroom. This is not the place to elaborate the findings of studies of teaching by television, but it would be negligent not to point out that in programs of general education involving hosts of students this new teaching medium will be an indispensable factor in our attempts to extend the advantages of high quality general education to many students who would otherwise be denied it.

In a very real sense the further development of general education—the clarification of its objectives, the more sensitive designing of new types of instruction and the recognition of its pivotal position in our national welfare—ought to be the dominant concern of the members of our profession and, for that matter, of laymen as well. In the absence of such planning and the strengthening of general education in all colleges and universities, the further expansion of knowledge through research and the swift movement of events on the world scene will only add to the present confusion. The end results of a widespread inability to understand and to deal promptly with the problems and issues of the day is a social system in which the selfish and the quick of wit will seize the decision-making power. This is the problem. Can the general education of the people here and abroad be accomplished quickly enough to make democratic government effective in grappling with the issues of our time and, by comparison, more desirable than another system which to those of limited educational advantages may appear to be more successful in meeting their emerging needs?

1. James Harvey Robinson, *The Humanizing of Knowledge*, George H. Doran Company, New York, 1926, p. 42.

2. Walter Lippmann, *Essays in the Public Philosophy*, Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1955, pp. 24-25.

3. *The New York Times*, 17 March 1959.

Christianity, Communism, and College Students

PAUL GEREN

In a new course at Baylor, students are comparing the ideas underlying Christianity and Communism. Result: a better understanding of both, and a new appreciation of the faith of their fathers

With the aid of a grant from the Danforth Foundation, a faculty group at Baylor University has during the last two years been preparing and offering a course known as The Comparative Study of Christianity and Communism. Some two hundred juniors and seniors, majors in practically every subject in the university, have elected the course. They plan careers as doctors, preachers, lawyers, teachers, businessmen, diplomats, housewives, actors, playwrights and politicians. The course represents an interdisciplinary effort, with credit given in the departments of religion, political science, history, foreign service and economics. Lecturers have participated from twelve departments of the university and from other institutions, including Harvard, Washington University, Berea College, University of Tennessee, University of Texas, Southern Methodist University, Southwestern and Southern Baptist Theological Seminaries. The chapter headings in the materials we prepared for the class were: faith, history, science, ethics, politics and the state, economics, marriage, family and society—each from a Christian and a communist perspective.

In a day when books and classes on the subject multiply we can hardly claim originality for this venture. The Yale Divinity School has offered work in Christianity and communism for more than thirty years and scores of seminaries now include such studies. All of these courses naturally have the approach of a theological seminary. College and universities do not usually offer courses in Christianity and communism, but most of them have offerings in the history of the U.S.S.R., the theory and practice of Marxism, comparative economic systems and the like.

If anything new is added in the project at Baylor University, it lies in

the organization of the subject within a liberal arts and sciences curriculum of a university which wishes to be faithful to a heritage of Christian faith. Though there is abundant surface friction for all to see, there is no essential conflict in the effort to be a Christian and a scholar. As early as the fifth century Augustine wrote: "Let every good and true Christian understand that wherever truth may be found it belongs to his Master." In our own epoch, in the 1948 Gifford Lectures at the University of St. Andrews, Emil Brunner said: "Whoever says 'Truth' says 'God'. It is the common conviction and tenet of all Christian theology that there is no other truth—whatever its content—than truth in God."

Our enthusiastic testimony is that the comparative study of Christianity and communism possesses an affinity for the idea of a university. Three senses may be cited in which this is true.

Such a course is integrative; it helps to piece together the fragments of knowledge in a divisive world all of whose materials seem fissionable. Neither genetics, musical composition nor Greek proved irrelevant to the enterprise. In explicating the relevance of Christianity and communism we were involved in the central problem of learning: to discover association extending from one plus one to different levels of existence. The integration in our study is accomplished at the edges of these specialized subjects like the meshing gears of wheels within wheels. Yet even the technical features of these subjects are interesting to the course, and we were glad to have explanations from specialists of such technical matters as the nature of a great Russian composer's musical composition which brought him a rap on the knuckles from Stalin—this explanation by the Dean of our School of Music, who had been in the U.S.S.R. at the time of the incident; an explanation by a physicist of why the communists consider Einstein a poor philosopher of science but nevertheless employ his equations successfully; an explanation from persons who know Greek, of the history and force of the New Testament Greek word *agape*, translated as "love"; explanations from a biologist and a philosopher of the sense in which Michurin-Lysenko genetics represents a case of a school of scientific thought arising out of the philosophical ideology of dialectical materialism.

A second instance of affinity of comparative study of Christianity and communism for a university is its "great books" quality. We did not assign one hundred great books, but we nodded to them and added our names to the resolution that no man can claim to be educated who is ignorant of the enduring writings of human civilization. In the comparative study of Christianity and communism we found ourselves involved

with the Bible first and most persistently. We did not suppose that we could exorcise the demons of communism by quoting scripture at them. Indeed some communists know the Bible: article twelve of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. includes the very words of II Thessalonians 3: 10 — "He who does not work, neither shall he eat." Our reading the Bible was dictated by the fact that we found in it the original and beautiful statement of the Hebrew-Christian view of God and man, which is anathema to communism.

In addition to the Bible, we had occasion to read from the works of Plato, Aristotle, Augustine, Francis of Assisi, Thomas Aquinas, Pascal, Luther, Calvin, John Locke, Adam Smith, David Ricardo, Hegel, Kant, Marx, Engels, Kierkegaard, Ludwig Feuerbach, Dostoevski (of whom one third of our students had never heard), and from men of our own century such as Lenin, Stalin, Nicholas Berdyaev, Karl Barth, William Temple, Emil Brunner, Reinhold and Richard Niebuhr, Paul Tillich and Jacques Maritain. It should not be supposed that we read from the great books prior to Karl Marx solely on behalf of Christianity. The communists are interested in the refutation of everyone in disagreement with them, from Abraham to Bertrand Russell, and they can be counted on to refer to many of the great books. One of the most revealing perspectives from which to study communism—or anything else—is to consider what it is anxious to refute.

The third in this series of affinities is of a different order from the great books idea: Christianity and communism are a part of our situation on earth in the year of Our Lord 1959. The real argument for the comparative study of Christianity and communism is not that it will prevent the spread of communism among American college students. If this is our peril, some combination of patriotism, privilege and the defense of our high standard of living will see to that. Rather the strength of the study is that it will help a student to articulate the faith that is in him, to see relationships and conflict and thus to replace shadowboxing with actual confrontation.

The most striking feature of the comparative study is the *non-comparability* of Christianity and communism. Christianity, on the most restrictive definition, has a history of 2,000 years, whereas communism is little more than 100 years old as an organized system of ideas and just over forty years old as the state power in the U.S.S.R. Communism elaborates a specifically economic and political analysis, whereas Christians draw their positions on these matters as inferences from the theological and ethical doctrines of Christianity. Christians have existed as

both majorities and minorities in monarchies, city states, democracies, theocracies, republics, and in slave, feudal, capitalist and socialist economies. Christianity is avowedly a faith in God revealed in Jesus Christ, while communism is militantly atheistic and "anti-religious."

In view of the great disparities between Christianity and communism, why should the comparison be between these two? Why not between communism and capitalism or between communism and democracy? Comparisons of communism with capitalism and democracy are useful and are implicit in the comparative study of Christianity and communism, which provides the deepest and widest frame of reference for the study. If the comparison is one between capitalism and communism, for example, see how great an area of study and association is eliminated. To confine the study to capitalism and communism is to capitulate partially to the communist claim that Christianity in "bourgeois" countries is simply a reflection of capitalism.

Because of considerations of profundity and breadth, we organized the study within the frame of reference of religion, high and low, and the questions stated in the next several paragraphs recurred many times.

Is communism a religion?

Not in a formal nor an orthodox sense, we concluded. It denies the existence of a supernatural being and it professes to have no use for the categories of worship, awe and mystery. If it is a religion, it is atheistic; but so are at least some forms of Buddhism, one of the great world religions. If it is a religion, it is a secular religion; but so are most paganismisms, including the modern ones.

Is communism a faith?

After they had finished the course our students were practically unanimous in an affirmative answer. Communism proffers an explanation of total reality, a world view, a cosmology, a theology without God. It asks from the Communist Party member an absolute commitment of his total personality. Certainly this is faith in the New Testament sense of "the conviction of things not seen" and in the sense of Tillich's definition: "Faith is the state of being grasped by an ultimate concern."

Is communism a Christian heresy?

Many Christian writers on communism have employed this phrase, which has at least two features to commend it. It reflects the fact that

communism has seized many of the prophetic strains of the Hebrew-Christian tradition and sought to make them its own. Among these are: "to each according to his need"; the vision of a new age, a new earth, a new man; the championship of the poor against the oppression of the rich seen in the Old Testament prophets and in the teachings of Jesus Christ.

The second feature is the suggestion implicit in the word "heresy" that the strength of communism is proportionate to the failure of Christians. Most of our students seem convinced that the successes of communism are in part of judgment on Christianity.

There is a fundamental sense, however, in which Christian heresy is not an accurate description of communism. A heretic is one who stands within the faith, attempting to recall the faithful to what he regards as truth. Communists do not consciously stand within the Christian heritage trying to win Christians to what they regard as true Christianity. Religion is the opiate of the people so far as they are concerned, and their cry, heard with more militancy in times past, is for the extinction of religion. The philosopher from whom the communists chiefly developed their attack on religion, Ludwig Feuerbach (1804-1872), advocated the need of a new and pure religion; but not the communists, who urge men to shake off their chains of which religion is one. Those who call for an end of religion may in fact make a religion of their proposed instrument of extinction, and this has assuredly happened in the communist case. Nevertheless it seemed better to us to acknowledge the relationship of communism to Christianity not in the phrase *Christian heresy* but in two phrases which Arnold Toynbee employs to describe totalitarianism: *ex-Christian* and *neo-pagan*. Communism emerges out of a culture which has known the impact of Christianity and it moves in the direction of a paganism which could become fashionable only in a society which had knowledge, however superficial, of Christianity.

One of our students called communism a counterfeit of Christianity. "Parody" seems a better word, because it pays due tribute to a low order of creativity. For the Christian conception of God, communism has its doctrine of dialectical materialism which is an explanation of ultimate power and meaning. For the Christian doctrine of evil, communism has its doctrine of class conflict resultant upon the private ownership of property. For the Christian doctrine of Jesus Christ the mediator and redeemer, Communism has its messiahship of the proletariat, the class who being without the taint of private ownership can bring the revolu-

tion to pass on behalf of all men—or in a grosser fashion the communist parody can have its messiah in Marx or Lenin. For the Christian doctrine of the church, communism has its doctrine of the party. For the Christian doctrine of the Kingdom of God, communism has its vision of a communist society. For the Christian doctrine of divine Providence, communism has its dialectic of history. For the Christian world mission to preach the gospel to all men, communism has its imperative of world revolution.

*How can Christianity and communism
be studied comparatively?*

We sensed three levels at which comparisons were being made: a level we would describe as ontological, or ground of being, but which we were willing to call “world view” in order to use the word which occurs in the communist literature (*Weltanschauung*); the level of doctrine, or what is taught as precept; and the level of practice.

The communists whose words we encountered were most resistant to the comparison at an ontological level, especially if this word were employed. In his theses on Feuerbach, Karl Marx wrote that while philosophers had sought to explain the world, he was interested in changing it. To this day communists manifest a scorn for mere discussion and a firm conviction that there is no such thing as objective truth in a capitalistic society. Significantly, the basic communist heresy is objectivism, which is their description of the claim that by taking an objective attitude it is possible to find truth not already contained in the basic communist doctrines. This tenet is for communists what the doctrine of original sin is for Christians. The basis of reality for them is matter. Whatever is, is material. There is no metaphysics because there is nothing beyond the physical. Consequently, though the communists are students, scholars and disputants, they are wary of the entire method and vocabulary of theology and philosophy, lest they fall into their own trap of heresy.

We who taught in the course kept returning to the ontological basis of comparison as needful, not only for an appraisal of what the grounding principle of communism is, but also in order to be aware of the ontological presuppositions of the Christian faith. Without apology we are identified with the Christian tradition. We do not believe that this need destroy our perspicacity as social scientists, natural scientists and men of letters. We cannot “prove” our presuppositions about God and man in the same way that a hypothesis concerning the speed of light can

be proved by laboratory experiment. Christian faith involves a leap for many of us, but we are nowhere forbidden to take an intellectual measurement of the distance of that leap. We feel the need of the largest vessel of faith we can find in order to relate all of our existence to the Christian faith. So we laid our Christian ontological presuppositions on the table at the start and intend to keep them in full view so long as we shall study.

As for the levels of comparative doctrine and practice, the main peril for a Christian in such study is the temptation to compare communist practice with Christian doctrine. We were successful in resisting most of the time, and where we were not, our students or the consultants from other universities detected us. Not only are there interesting questions of comparing Christian and communist doctrines and practices, but there is an intriguing set of problems in the comparison of communist doctrine with communist practice and Christian doctrine with Christian practice. It is a realm in which both Christians and communists can be embarrassed provided they have any sense of shame. The distance between communist doctrine and practice is evident in the state, which is supposed to wither away but which, under state socialism in the U.S.S.R., has become more powerful than under the Tsars; in the doctrine of "to each according to his need," (the coefficient of variation in the wage and salary structure of the U.S.S.R. is supposed by many observers to be higher than that of the United States); and in the continuation within the U.S.S.R. and Communist China of many evils which communist doctrine attributes to a capitalist society.

Christian practice has changed more than its doctrines. Attitudes concerning slavery, the place of women, the state and the end of human history may be cited, with the qualification that an entire spectrum of ideas on these subjects may still be found if a sufficient variety of contemporary Christians are assembled.

Communist practice can be made to appear closer to its doctrine than is the case with Christianity. This appearance drew two efforts at explanation from us. The first is the remarkable agility of the communists in unifying doctrine and practice. If doctrine does not conform to practice, it can be reinterpreted even to 180 degrees, and those who held a previous and varying interpretation, even though they had been in the good graces of the party, can be found in error *ex post facto*—or *post mortem*. The second explanation suggested is that a non-transcendent system is always less complex in its doctrine-practice dimension than is

a transcendent system. Christians derive their standard of conduct from what they believe about God. Accordingly they must account first to heaven for differences between God's commands and their own practice. The acknowledgement that "all have sinned and come short of the glory of God" is a primary Christian doctrine, and one of the paradoxes of the faith is the proximity of the bad news of the fall of man to the good news of Christ.

Communism, on the other hand, has no point of reference outside itself. The only judges it can know are commissars and the only judgment it admits is of wars, purges and prisons. Considered only from the point of view of harmonizing doctrine and practice, this is an advantage, but considered from a Christian perspective, it is the fateful and irremediable bane in communism.

The summation of our experience is that the liberal arts and sciences curriculum will be enriched by a course in the comparative study of Christianity and communism. Such comparative study has an affinity for the genius of liberal education at the college and university level. Such study does not prosper on suspicion, distrust and book-burning, which stifle the creative spirit. Given our open society and our commitment to democratic process, it is impossible to fight communism by using communism's weapon of the closed system. We can educate for democracy only if we know the inner necessities of democracy. One of its necessities is to leave the student room to face problems and make choices. If this be so, it is impossible to prepare college students for the confrontation with communism by attempting to hide the patent strengths and well-advertised triumphs of the system from them.

The strength of Christianity is best read under the same clear light. Christian faith does not teach that whatever succeeds is righteous. It has fought its battles from catacombs and rejection as well as from places of convention and acceptance. It seems sure to outlast Western civilization, including both capitalism and communism, and no one who studies Christianity against the background of its most notorious antagonist of this epoch will have squandered his time.

A Solution to Academic Frustration

RAY HAWK

A plea for more post-doctoral fellowships for young faculty members, who, it is suggested, need time away from the pressures of the job as much as older ones do

During the past year an experimental project was established at the University of Michigan with the financial support of the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The university received a grant of \$400,000 to provide major support for the first five years of operation of a Center for the Study of Higher Education. In their "five-year plan" the faculty committee responsible for policy and appropriations allocated about half of the grant to fellowships in higher education and the remainder to strengthening the faculty and encouraging research. This article will outline the post-doctoral experiences of the Michigan fellows, but its primary purpose is to focus attention on the need of more professional opportunities for other junior faculty members.

In recent years The Ford Foundation and the National Science Foundation have been important sponsors of post-doctoral fellowships. Foreign study grants have been possible under the provisions of the Fulbright Act. A few universities have supported programs of their own: a notable example is the Center for the Study of Behavioral Sciences at Stanford University. In terms of total need, only the surface has been scratched, but it is an important start.

Opportunities for junior faculty members to take a year away from their posts for professional advancement have been limited. There are many reasons for this. Such persons are in the lower salary ranges and when eligible for sabbatical leaves¹ find it impossible to meet expenses without supplementary assistance from a grant or part-time employment. While many recently graduated Ph.D.'s have a great desire to continue research and to write, they have found that their teaching load, plus faculty committee and student advising assignments, leave precious little time.² Their problems do not abate when they return to their homes after a full day's schedule on the campus. These are the years of establishing a

family, and most young faculty couples have the time-consuming responsibility of children. No matter whether it is a romp on the living-room carpet or an assist to the Cub Scout or Blue Bird, these demands must be fulfilled. In addition citizenship responsibilities have to be met. The usual round of PTA meetings, Cub Scouts, fund drives, committee memberships and so on is a part of the scene. How then is the young faculty man to grow professionally as expected by a department head or dean?

This poses a serious dichotomy. If young faculty members do a successful job of classroom teaching, make themselves available to students for advice and consultation, provide time for their families and serve as responsible community members, they dilute their professional accomplishment in research and publication. There isn't time, and most likely not enough energy, to accomplish what is expected in most academic institutions.

In the hierarchy of higher education, promotion, tenure and salary raises are largely dependent upon professional recognition. Too often in the academic world the research reported, the articles published or professional papers read are the determining criteria for promotion. This places the young faculty member in the position of making unpleasant choices. Something must be neglected and the student is often the sufferer. It is easy to persuade oneself, under such a system, that teaching responsibility ends when the lecture notes are placed in the briefcase at the close of the hour. It is not uncommon to find notices posted at faculty offices noting that office hours for students are 2-3 p.m. on Friday, for example. If students find faculty unavailable for consultation, it is a direct outgrowth of the system.

Another choice is complete withdrawal from the community. Never attend PTA etcetra, for fear of a duty assignment. Too many stalwart citizens of college communities deprecate relations between "town and gown." Again the system undermines the efforts of normal compatibility.

College administrators are more often aware of these problems than senior faculty members. An example is the annual recommendation of faculty advisory committees on promotion. When these committees screen the list of junior faculty to make their recommendations for promotion, tenure or raises, they usually revert to the age-old standard of professional production. Many by-passed faculty members feel this system makes no more sense than the answer of a college fraternity man

when asked why his organization has not dispensed with "hell week" — "I went through it. Why shouldn't they?" Perhaps it is time to look elsewhere for a solution to this problem.

The decision of the University of Michigan faculty committee to provide five post-doctoral grants in college and university administration and the willingness of both Dr. Algo Henderson, director of the Center for the Study of Higher Education, and the Carnegie Corporation to support this idea may be an important start in an expanding program. After one semester it is now possible to evaluate the post-doctoral fellows' experiences.

The five fellows were selected in open competition. Points of similarity include an age-range of approximately thirty to forty, a minimum of three years' experience in higher education and excellent prospects for college administration. The group includes a college president, two deans of men and two history professors, representing a state university, a private junior college, a private four-year college and two state colleges. Geographically, they come from Iowa, Maryland, Oregon, West Virginia and Wisconsin.

Although this group has been unusually successful in professional advancement, they found the usual frustrations arising when time was devoted to professional research and writing. Excepting publications resulting from thesis preparation, only one member of this select group had accomplished a significant amount of professional writing.

During the first semester, the fellows chose projects they thought would be most rewarding. The college president completed a project of research on college self-studies. His college is expanding from a two- to a four-year program in some areas. The self-study technique, used effectively at many schools, was evaluated and the principles best suited to his situation selected. The others have divided their time in three parts. All are auditing courses they feel will be helpful. Intern experiences in administrative operations have been provided. One fellow serves as secretary to the curriculum committee of the College of Literature, Science and the Arts; another works with the dean of administration and director of university relations; a third works under the direction of the vice-president for student affairs and the fourth commutes to Ypsilanti where he has assisted the academic vice-president at Eastern Michigan College. In the time remaining they devote their energies to reading and research.

Each week the five fellows and five staff members of the center meet

in a two-hour seminar. During the semester each of the ten has submitted a professional paper for critique. This period is also used to discuss literature of current interest in higher education.

Several of the fellows have had work accepted for publication. They now feel that the opportunity to read and the freedom to write has provided an impetus that will be easier to maintain when they return to their positions next year. Contacts have been made with some outstanding educators. Many of these men have been willing to share their time discussing ideas and philosophy of education. A notable example was Dr. Harold Taylor, president of Sarah Lawrence College, who spent several hours with the group. A number of eminent foreign educators have made themselves available. Among these have been Dr. Morito, president of Hiroshima University in Japan and Sir George Paton, vice-chancellor of the University of Melbourne in Australia.

All five fellows agree that this year, following formal education and job experiences, is the most rewarding experience of their lives. For once there is time to read, write, discuss and theorize without the pressures of the job or the concerns of term papers, examinations and grades.

If a program of this design can accomplish so much for young administrators, why cannot the same goals be reached in all academic areas? Carnegie Corporation, among others, has seen the value of this type of program. Surely many more foundations and universities can be interested in making similar opportunities available to young faculty members. It would seem that such an investment would provide unlimited motivation to junior faculty members. These opportunities would be coveted and would raise morale at a time when college administrators are very much concerned about staffing the classrooms.

1. Not all institutions grant sabbatical leaves although it appears that the practice is expanding. Institutions with such a program are following a more generous pattern in approving these leaves.

2. While no specific data can be quoted, it is the considered opinion of men familiar with the literature that fewer than 25 per cent of holders of doctorates ever publish beyond their dissertation.

How to Orient and Train Trustees

ROBERT W. MERRY

To insure a trustee's effectiveness, lead him to a proper understanding of the institution and of his role—and see to it that he has fun doing his job. The writer suggests some ways it can be done

In this talk I propose to discuss the problems of achieving four main purposes and then to speak specifically about certain methods of orientation. The purposes are as follows:

- 1) To develop knowledge and understanding of the institution;
- 2) To develop knowledge and understanding of the trustee's role;
- 3) To enable trustees to participate more effectively earlier;
- 4) To make this public service fun from the start.

To understand an institution a trustee must acquire a considerable body of knowledge about it. He must see it realistically as a living experimental organism in a changing environment. The knowledge is necessary both to permit his own analysis of the variety of problems that will arise and to enable him to evaluate quickly the statements of others with whom he talks about the institution.

One of the first and most important pieces of knowledge with which a trustee should be provided is a brief history of the institution. A sense of its length of life and of the momentum it has gathered is of great help in appraising changes to come. The character of the institution, in terms of the type of student body it draws, the type of faculty it has, the type of curriculum it provides, the kinds of attitudes and habits it inculcates, will necessarily be a vital factor when judgments are to be formed. The changing objectives of the institution over a period of years may help the trustee to understand the role that it has played and can play. Some knowledge of the people who have had most influence in creating and in

This article is adapted from a talk given by Mr. Merry to the Conference on College Trustee Orientation, Reed College and University of Oregon, 12 December 1958.

modifying the character of the institution will be of great help in arousing the interest of a new trustee and in enabling him to feel that the heritage of the institution is to some extent his heritage also. He may be helped to feel the desirability of living up to the standards of the great men in the institution's past. Most institutions develop over a period certain traditions which become dear to them. The trustee who is unaware of such traditions not only loses a great deal of the aura and sentiment of the institution but he may inadvertently find himself making embarrassing statements or misconstruing the statements of others. To fit into the institution as one of the shapers of its present and future, the trustee should have a good understanding of its historical development.

A second type of knowledge necessary for understanding of the institution is a clear present picture. Such a picture should indicate the scope of operations: a description of the activities of the institution; whether it operates wholly on one campus or on two or three different campuses; whether it includes other schools, such as medicine, law and architecture, in addition to a school of arts and sciences. Even in a liberal arts college it is desirable for the trustees to learn quickly the scope of instruction, which in that case might include information on the principal divisions or departments.

Figures on the size of the institution should also be made available to the trustee early on his arrival: the size of the student body, the size of the faculty, the size of the administrative and auxiliary staff. Growth or change may further be indicated by means of a description of major educational changes: additional departments or schools, changes in the variety of people on the faculty, changes in the type of student body and changes in the total amount of the budget.

The current picture should be rounded out by an organizational description listing the chief offices and their incumbents, their various activities and the organizational relationships within which they conduct their respective operations. Sometimes an organization chart may be used; in other cases a description of the organization may serve better.

Since the budget is in many respects the main operating document with which the trustees deal, it is desirable to acquaint a trustee early with the general size and character of income and outgo. The major components of income might well be broken down under subheads indicating the percentage of income coming from tuition, from endowment, from self-supporting activities such as dormitories, and from gifts. Total expenses might be broken down to show the percentages attributable to

faculty salaries, total instructional expenses, administrative expenses, self-supporting activities and any residue.

The history, the present picture and the budget represent fairly tangible data, but there are three types of relatively intangible data which should also be transmitted to trustees. The first of these is the current objectives of the institution and its performance in relation to those objectives. I use the word "current" because the trustees should constantly appraise the desirability of changing the objectives as the environment changes. An understanding of this guiding aspect of the institution requires a knowledge and understanding of the educational environment, of the capacities of the faculty, of the characteristics of the student body, of the nature of the area from which students are drawn and of the curriculum itself. Should a school seek to provide a local, regional or national service? Should it seek to expand to meet growing needs for education or should it remain small in order to continue a particular type of education in which it has been effective in the past? Should it provide adult education services to its community or limit itself to full-time degree programs? Should it add specialties in nuclear disciplines and in Far Eastern cultures or improve its current offerings? As the sociological characteristics of the region change, should it change with them?

The second relatively intangible type of data consists of the problems which the president, the administration and the faculty face in trying to improve the performance of the college in fulfilling its objectives. There may be an impending retirement of a number of able faculty members for whom there are no comparable successors in the junior ranks. There may be inadequate facilities to meet demands which it is believed should be provided for. Departmental sizes may not accord with changing student enrolments in courses and programs. Financial resources may be inadequate to pay suitable faculty salaries, to provide adequate facilities and to grant sufficient financial aid to students.

The third type of intangible data which should be transmitted to the new trustee consists of the plans of the president and the board. Such plans as may exist for the long-range accomplishment of the institution's goals, and such plans as have been made for the immediate future in attempting to overcome current problems, must be made known to the trustee if he is to contribute effectively to discussions.

In order to develop knowledge and understanding of the institution as a living organism, then, a trustee should be informed of three types of tangible data—a brief history, a present picture and the budget situation

—and he should be apprised of three intangible types of data—the current objectives of the institution, the problems involved in achieving those objectives and the plans proposed for overcoming the problems. With this background the trustee is ready to consider the role that he should play in contributing to the progress of his institution.

A few simple but basic facts about the board are necessary to enable the trustee to know the source and limits of his authority and responsibility. He should be provided at once with the charter of the institution and the by-laws of the board of trustees. He should be informed of the legal responsibility of the trustees to hold property, to employ faculty, to grant degrees, and of any other responsibilities having a legal origin. The committee structure of the board and the purposes of each committee with its membership should be described. If there are established meeting dates for the board and its committees, they should be called to his attention so that he may get them on his calendar months in advance.

The more crucial parts of the new trustee's role may then be discussed with him, or if there are many joining the board at one time, with the group of them. The discussion might be led by either the president or the chairman of the board, depending upon the roles of these two officers in the institution and the nature of the relationship between them.

One of the most important roles which a board may play, if it is willing to give the time and work involved and if there are enough meetings to permit it, is to serve as an advisory or counseling body to the president. A group of intelligent, informed, interested men with whom the president may discuss the problems about which he is most concerned is of inestimable value to him. At the same time the president will help new board members get to know his problems by calling on them for such help.

A second role the board may play consists in seeing that the institution is well run. Probing with penetrating questions beneath the president's recommendations will reveal a great deal about his methods of operation and the strength of the foundation on which he makes his decisions and builds his programs. The board should satisfy itself that the president's recommendations are made after thorough staff work upon a fully adequate basis of data and after full discussion with the main people influenced or interested. Charles A. Coolidge, the senior fellow of Harvard University, has made a point of distinguishing between trying to run an institution and trying to see that it is well run. Failure to make this

distinction will make the job of the president almost intolerable. Yet such failure is one of the common faults of boards of trustees.

A third function of the board is the support and protection of the president, the faculty and the institution. This function often comes to the fore when there arise cases involving academic freedom, tenure, alumni criticism, external attack and the like. Too often trustees fail to defend the institution but rather join—sometimes even lead—the attack, having failed to understand the significance of the event in the school's situation.

A fourth function is evaluation of the institution as a whole. This responsibility of the board includes evaluation of the educational program as well as of the financial status. It requires specific goals and target dates for achieving them. It includes development of measures of performance and consideration of results as compared with plans.

A fifth function of the board in most institutions today is to help raise funds, either from gifts or from appropriations. Clearly the president can never avoid having a major share in this activity, but the trustees themselves should feel a serious responsibility for helping him. If the president needs to give most of his time to this task, he will soon cease to be the educational leader of the institution.

There is relatively little that can be done, I believe, in the orientation period with any of these major functions of the board of trustees. Effective performance comes from training over a long period of time. It is developed primarily by the behavior of the president himself in his dealings with the board and by the attitude and behavior of the chairman. These functions may be called to the attention of the new trustee, however, by the chairman of the board at an early date.

Also of great significance to a new trustee in understanding the trustee's role is recognition of its limits. The most important function of the board, which I have delayed mentioning until now, provides at the same time the greatest limit on its role. This most important function is the selection of the president himself. Having selected the president, the board should then put itself in a position of counseling him, supporting him, protecting him and evaluating him. So long as the evaluation is on balance favorable, the board should rely on him for the administration of the institution. When the balance turns unfavorable, with little likelihood of improving, it is the board's duty to dismiss the president and seek a successor who will be better.

I have already spoken of the board's duty of assuring that the institution is well run rather than trying to run it. The board should not seek to make operating decisions. It should not vote detailed directives. It should indicate directions, areas, policies. While it is always difficult to draw a clear line between policy on the one hand and operations on the other, the board must constantly guard against encroachment on operations, which hamstrings or undermines the president.

One of the greatest pleasures for a trustee in joining a board is making the acquaintance or friendship of the various colleagues with whom he will work. It is therefore helpful to make available to the new trustee at an early stage a list of the names of the trustees, their addresses, their telephone numbers, the positions they hold, their business affiliations. Most enjoyable to the trustee, though seldom provided, would be a paragraph of biographical data regarding each of the other trustees. If there are interesting facts about the trustees, either in the way of unusual public service, unique achievement, historical relationships to the institution or special hobbies or avocations, these may be informally passed along and will help a new trustee to understand and enjoy his colleagues more readily. The sooner the new trustee feels a member of the group, the sooner the fun begins for him.

Much of the fun in serving on a board comes from a feeling of dedication to the institution. If a trustee is a graduate of the institution, as are many, he is already well along this road. If he is not, the peculiar characteristics of the institution will gain his interest and entice his curiosity to learn more. The president or the chairman of the board, therefore, may early find it useful to discuss with him a particular tradition with an interesting background or extraordinary origin. Sometimes the ways in which certain buildings or gifts were obtained may provide a fascinating story. Anecdotes about various faculty members over the years are often entrancing. Invitations to trustees to participate in the social activities of the student body, the faculty and the institution as a whole often feed a pleasurable current of continuing experience, sometimes developing in the trustee a firm bond of affection for the institution. While it is not to be expected that trustees will be able to accept many of these invitations, even a few during the course of a year or two add measurably to their store of associations.

The opportunity to meet the chief educational and administrative officers provides in itself some significant satisfactions. Such men are ordinarily not only intelligent and interesting conversationalists but they

represent points of view and types of activities sufficiently different from those experienced from day to day by most of the trustees to provide an interesting variation from their daily contacts.

The creative opportunity in trying to carry an institution from its present position to a new role in the future is always one involving challenge and ingenuity. The president may, using some discretion, discuss with board members some of his visions of the school as he would like to see it at some time in the future. He may draw on trustees for ideas that might be brought into his own thinking or discussed among the group.

The ways in which trustees may be made acquainted with the institution depend naturally upon their degree of knowledge. The graduate who is an active alumnus will have kept up with the institution. The graduate who has been inactive will be interested primarily by changes made since his graduation. The trustee who has never attended the institution but comes from the locality may know a good deal more than one who has had little connection with the institution at all. These statements are self-evident and I mention them only to indicate that many of my suggestions must necessarily be adopted to particular individuals.

Orientation should begin *before* the trustee is selected. In some cases, regents may be appointed by a governor without consultation with the president or the chairman of the board, or trustees may be elected by independent groups of electors prescribed by the charter of the institution. But if there is an opportunity to talk with the prospective trustee before his appointment, it is desirable for the president or the chairman or board members appointed for the purpose to discuss with him the present situation of the institution, their plans for the future, the interest he would find in working with them on behalf of the institution and his willingness to give time and effort to it. Sometimes it is necessary to acquaint a prospective board member with the institution through a succession of visits in order to gain his interest. Such a "selling" job is a part of the orientation. Unless it is evident, however, that a trustee will have a strong interest in an institution and would like to work for its progress, it is probably better that he not be selected. Whenever possible it is best if prospective trustees are discussed with the president and if those who would meet the wishes of both the board and the president are chosen.

When a trustee has been selected, the president should get to know him as quickly as possible. It is more important, I believe, for the president to get to know a new trustee quickly than it is for the chairman or

the other board members. If a personal visit to the institution can be arranged, a day or an afternoon spent on the campus in the company of the president is excellent. If many new trustees are appointed at one time, it may be necessary to have them meet with the president as a group. Nevertheless the best relationships probably come from a person-to-person visit. This situation gives the president and the trustee a good opportunity to get to know each other, and each other's views, without having to take into account a variety of reactions from different people.

During a campus tour the president may recount in easy and informal fashion the traditions and character of the institution. Such a tour should be provided for all trustees as early as possible. From time to time repeat tours or tours of new buildings, new laboratories or remodeled areas are desirable.

A luncheon followed by a tour offers a ready opportunity for the president to present the trustee with a reference packet. Such a packet, which might be of filing-cabinet size so that the trustee could keep it in his office file, should contain a brief written history of the institution, a map of the grounds and buildings, an organization chart or description, the charter and by-laws, a list of members of the board of trustees with data about them, a statement of the board's committee structure and assignments and any other pertinent information.

From time to time the president may wish to send to the trustees reprints of talks given on matters of interest to them. Articles are frequently found in the educational journals both on the duties of trustees and on subjects of specific interest. Copies of current university catalogues should also be provided as reference data in case a trustee wishes at any time to discover some particular piece of information about the institution.

Thereafter the president would do well to hold regular meetings of his committees, if the trustees are located nearby, so that they may get to know each other more intimately by meeting in smaller groups than the board as a whole. Social occasions at the president's house and university or college functions also offer a useful opportunity for trustees to meet each other, to meet faculty and to meet students.

Further training of trustees is not dissimilar from life itself. All of us — president, trustees, administrative staff and faculty — continue to learn. Regular meetings of the board and of its committees will contribute substantially to the knowledge and effectiveness of the trustees.

Certain matters might best be taken up at a time considerably after the

initial orientation. One subject of which trustees need understanding, and are not likely to have it initially, is the nature of education. Most students, particularly undergraduates, are just coming out of the adolescent stage. They are partially children and partially adults. They shift back and forth unpredictably between these states. A live, alert student body is certain to be frisky. It is certain to have a variety of outbreaks. Often the students are testing the limits of convention. Sometimes they are simply full of fun. The trustees should recognize that active, developing students are likely to create problems for the administration. If the president uses every opportunity presented by current events, or created by having members of his faculty such as deans or department heads discuss their problems with the board, he may be able to convey to the trustees a good deal of understanding of the problems of education.

The trustees, furthermore, should be brought to a sophisticated understanding of the job of the president. If an institution is striking out, if it is developing new ways of teaching, if it is turning up new lines of thought, there is great likelihood that from time to time its activities will be in opposition to the views of the community. Whenever such a circumstance occurs, the president is likely to find himself in trouble. The board should support the president, should counsel him and should try to give him encouragement during these difficult times.

Finally the president should try to develop among the trustees a pride in their role. They should have understanding enough to be proud of an institution in which there is enough development to create challenges to the past. The president can help by explaining and even anticipating furor and outcry. A trustee or a regent who cannot stand to have the president of his institution in trouble at any time should resign. He could be at ease as a trustee only of a stagnant institution.

The Dana College

Liberal Arts Reading Program

ELMER M. RASMUSSEN

At this small college, students and faculty undertook to study the "great books" together in a course that proved to be a rewarding experience for both

Like every other college faculty that is concerned about the intellectual development of its students, the faculty of Dana College spends much time and thought on that topic in its formal and informal meetings. Such discussion among faculty members resulted in the discovery that most of them had "read about" many of the great books of the past but had not read the books themselves. They considered the possibility of reading some of these books together and having regular monthly meetings to discuss them. It did not take long to move to the idea of including students in the plan, for many of them too were missing the reading of many of the great books.

Thus when Gordon Ferguson, chairman of the Modern Language Department, presented to the faculty a plan for reading the great books together with the students, there was almost unanimous approval of the *idea*, but not of the plan for carrying it out. So a faculty committee was appointed to develop a plan that would be acceptable. This was taking place during the first semester, 1955-56.

The committee set to work. Plans of other colleges were studied; there were not too many of them and none seemed to be what was wanted at Dana. So the committee set about working out a plan that would meet the objectives and also the conditions as they were perceived to be at Dana. This was to be a "Dana Plan."

That the reading of great books should be the center of the program was unquestioned. But should it be required of all? Should there be credit for such reading or not? If there were credit, how much—and how were the apparently necessary grades to be determined? What should be the objectives in reading the great works and how should the program be

carried out in order to reach those objectives? Should the program be open to faculty wives, who were very much interested, or only to faculty and students? How many books should be read per semester? Who should choose them and on what basis? What should be the role of the faculty? Would the cost of the books hinder each student from having his own copy? Should freshmen and seniors meet in the same discussion groups? These and many more questions had to be answered before a workable plan could be presented.

The faculty committee set about finding answers to these questions, referring decisions to the entire faculty occasionally to be certain that the plan being developed would be approved. In order to have a clear basis on which to make all required decisions, the group turned once more to the objectives of such a program. The reading of great books would be valuable for the knowledge and the ideas contained in them. Certainly a broad knowledge of the ideas of men who formed, described clearly or evaluated critically the culture which has become ours would be valuable for any educated person. But such a program, if rightly planned, would seem to be ideal in helping achieve another fundamental goal of education—the ability to understand, interpret and evaluate what one reads and hears. Without a doubt, this is only learned by practice and most students could use more of it. And the art of discussion and conversation, now almost a lost art in many circles, could be stimulated. And if at the same time a scholarly attitude, a greater unity of feeling towards learning, could be developed among faculty and students, this would be worth much. These, then, became the objectives of the new program. They were stated thus in a general statement to the students:

I. The reading of the best works of the written cultural heritage

- A) An acquaintance with great men and their writings
- B) A core of knowledge universal among the campus population
- C) A desire to continue the acquaintanceship with the great men of the ages through their writings and an improvement in reading taste

II. Free, undirected interpretation and discussion of great works

- A) An increase in reading understanding
- B) An increase in interpretive powers
- C) A development of critical judgment
- D) A development of the ability to discuss
- E) A development of scholarly self-reliance
- F) A higher level of scholarly attitudes
- G) A higher level of campus conversation

- H) An increase in the sense of unity among faculty and students
- I) An opportunity for personal contact for each faculty member with all students through the weekly rotation of faculty members from group to group

In order to achieve the desired campus unity, it was decided to make the program compulsory for all full-time students. Rather than spend too much time on any one book, it was decided to read three or four books per semester, spending two to five periods on each book. This would provide more extensive reading for the students, as about thirty books would be included in four years, which is certainly not too many. Probably good discussion would also be easier with more extensive reading. Books were to be chosen by a student-faculty committee from great writings available in paperback editions, for it was desired that each person should have his own copy.

It was decided that one half semester credit would be allowed each semester in order to give acceptable standing to the program as well as because of its value. Some argued for one semester credit, but this was rejected for two reasons: it would add too many hours to the requirements for the degree and would be too much credit for the amount of work planned. Since credit was to be given, standards of work needed to be established. It was finally decided to use the regular system of grading, the grades being based on the results of a ten-minute test on the current reading at the beginning of each period. Since the program did not fit entirely into any department, it was decided to list it as Humanities 101-402, with a different number for each semester for each year of the student's progress towards the degree. The program would be described simply as Liberal Arts Reading.

Much time was spent on the size of groups and their composition. Twelve in a group was considered ideal but fifteen was accepted for practical reasons of faculty and rooms available. While upperclassmen might have advantages in discussion groups, it was decided that they could contribute to underclassmen and that the campus unity would be better if all students were grouped as much at random as possible. Also many freshmen would have ability equal to that of some upperclassmen for the kind of learning involved.

Faculty responsibility during discussions was a more difficult question. The feeling was strong among some faculty members that they should not undertake to lead a class unless they were highly conversant with the readings. Others felt equally strongly that the faculty member need

not be an expert on the readings but should be on equal footing with the students for best results in the program. The latter viewpoint was the one that prevailed, but the discussion led to the idea of having the faculty member most conversant with the field of the great book prepare a one-page introduction for distribution to both students and faculty in addition to preparing the test questions for all groups.

So the plan was worked out, passed almost unanimously by the faculty at a regular meeting and placed in summary form in the 1956-57 catalogue as a definite part of the curriculum of Dana College.

Individual students had been consulted from time to time on the various questions and had been in harmony with the decisions of the faculty. A proposal to make a trial run of the program was accepted and a group of about ten upperclassmen volunteered to take part. *The Scarlet Letter* was used, being divided into four readings, each to be discussed under the leadership of one of the members of the faculty committee. The results of the experiment were satisfactory and provided background for the final planning of the program.

The Liberal Arts Reading Program should be presented as it is now operating. All full-time students are grouped at random into groups of approximately fifteen students, the groups remaining the same throughout a semester. A faculty member meets with each group, but it is a different faculty member each time. Five or more faculty members have no assigned group; they may attend any group they wish or are substitutes for other faculty members when needed.

An introductory sheet explaining the program and its purposes and procedures is given to each student at the beginning of the year. A faculty member is assigned to prepare for distribution a one-page introduction to the book to be read; he is also responsible for preparing questions on each reading, to be used as indicated in the next paragraph.

A fifty-minute period is set aside on Tuesdays from 8:50 to 9:40 a.m. for all groups to meet. No other classes are scheduled at this time. The groups meet for twelve periods each semester. During the first ten minutes of the period students write their responses to one of two or three questions duplicated for all students on a half sheet of paper and available to the faculty members in the period before the groups meet. Questions are always based on the 40-100 pages of reading for the week and are usually so worded as to require students to give definite information about some part of the content and to express their interpretation or opinion of it.

After the students have turned in their written responses to the questions, the rest of the period is given to free discussion on the reading and its implications. It is not intended that the faculty member should direct the discussion in any preselected direction; nor should he dominate the discussion or spend the period in presenting his own views. His major function is to guide the discussion and to see that all persons have an opportunity to present their ideas and to evaluate those of others. He may ask questions of his own or use those on the half sheet on which the students have already written their ideas individually. Or he may make challenging statements or refer the group to a statement in the reading and ask for reactions. He may serve as chairman or he may have the students select their own chairman for the discussion.

After the session the faculty member grades the papers for his section, basing the grade entirely on the written answers. One of four grades may be given, depending on the quality of the answer. An "A" is for the student who has given a clear and complete answer, including a pertinent expression of viewpoint or opinion. A "B" is for the student who has answered the question with correct and adequate information but has not gone on to an interpretation of his own. A "C" is for the student who gives clear indication of having read the passage, while an "F" is for the student who has apparently not read the selection or has gained nothing from it.

The papers are then all turned over to one person who records the grades and returns the papers to the students by way of their mail boxes. Grades are changed to a numerical score for averaging for the final grade for the course, which carries one half credit per semester. Non-attendance for any class period means an "F" for that period unless the absence occurs for reasons beyond the control of the student, in which case the period is not counted in averaging for the final grade. Grades become a part of the permanent academic record of the student and are included in the overall grade point average for graduation and for honors.

Books have been chosen to provide variety both in type of literature and subject matter. Among those selected have been: *Don Quixote* by Cervantes, *The Prince* by Machiavelli, the plays of Ibsen, *Origin of the Species* by Darwin, *The Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin*, *Pilgrim's Progress* by Bunyan, *St. Joan* by Shaw, *The Odyssey* by Homer, the Platonic dialogues, *Faust* by Goethe, *Gulliver's Travels* by Swift, *Modern Science and Modern Man* by Conant, *Crime and Punishment* by Dostoevsky, *Psychopathology of Everyday Life* by Freud, *Communist*

Manifesto by Marx, *Inferno* by Dante, *Walden* and *Civil Disobedience* by Thoreau, and *Candide* by Voltaire. Most of these have been successful, but some have not because of readings that have been too long or for other reasons that seem to be within the power of the faculty to change.

After the first full year of the program, the committee prepared a questionnaire to gain student evaluation. The questionnaire was made available to all students and about seventy per cent of them responded. Answers were anonymous, though students indicated in their responses their class level, semester grade point average and sex. An open question was included in order to permit responses on things that were not in the questionnaire. An unfavorable response was expected for several reasons: the program was new; it demanded regular reading; some mistakes had been made in the selection or in the handling of some of the readings; and the program was compulsory. It was anticipated that those with low grades would be unfavorable; that underclassmen would be less favorable than upperclassmen; that males would be less favorable than females. It was expected, on the other hand, that the students would have become increasingly well disposed to the program during the year and that they would want it to continue, possibly with modifications.

All but six of the students answering the questionnaire made free comments ranging from two statements to a full page. The comments confirmed and expanded the answers to the 34 questions of the questionnaire.

Ninety-two per cent agreed that the size of the groups was good; the rest were evenly divided between too large and too small. Eighty-two per cent enjoyed the group they were in. Concerning the amount of reading, 52 per cent thought it was satisfactory while 44 per cent thought it was too much. Many of the latter group thought it would be all right if more credit were given. Seventy-eight per cent thought that the amount of credit was too low; many of them suggested one credit per semester instead of the one half. Twenty per cent thought the amount of credit was satisfactory; in this there was a definite relationship to class level, with one third of the seniors, one fourth of the juniors, one fifth of the sophomores and less than one seventh of the freshmen holding this view. Students with higher grades were also more satisfied with the amount of credit given than were those with lower grades.

In almost all areas, the opinion of the students was uniform throughout the whole student group. The girls tended to be more favorable in response to a few questions such as: other colleges should have a similar program; grading should be based entirely on the ten-minute quiz instead

of on discussion also; the test questions were satisfactory; grading was satisfactory. Upperclassmen were more favorable than underclassmen to the selection of readings and on general interest in the program. Those who spent more time on reading were also those who felt more strongly that other colleges should have a similar program. Those who spent least time on reading and who received lowest grades were generally least favorable throughout. The only point on which those with low grades responded more favorably than the others was on whether or not they learned from the discussion period.

About 90 per cent of the group discussed both the books themselves and the ideas in them outside class. This is the influence on conversation in which the faculty is interested. It is interesting to note that the students reported the faculty as favorable to the program; only five per cent reported the faculty as unfavorable. They also, by a large majority, reported themselves as favorable, but forty per cent reported that *other* students were unfavorable. The reason seems to be indicated by a statement from a student: "When I'm on the campus, I gripe a lot about the course; but when I was home for Christmas, I really bragged about the books we have been reading."

A number of factors indicate that student reaction to the program has become more favorable in each succeeding year. Attendance is better, though it has always been good, and there are fewer failures in the program. There is less "gripping" among the students because of the requirement, and there are more spontaneous favorable comments. In the second semester of the second year, one girl became disgruntled over low grades resulting from lack of serious reading. She decided to write an article against the program in the student paper, *Hermes*, which is entirely student-controlled. To bolster her arguments she made a poll among her friends in order to show how disliked the program was among the students. To her surprise a very large majority refused to say anything against the program; instead they spoke for it. She wrote the article, having promised it to the editor, but it was favorable rather than antagonistic.

There are some unsolved problems in the program. One that is most troublesome to the students concerns the grading: some faculty members give lower grades than others for the same quality of work. Students are already aware of this, but it becomes more obvious when papers graded by various faculty members can be compared as they can be in this program. The faculty has each year taken time to discuss at a faculty

meeting the written policy for giving grades in the course; the individual differences remain though they have been lessened. The selection of books is of course a continuing problem.

The faculty has an extra class to teach, which often takes time that is hard to find. Some allowance is made for relative loads in the assignment of the sections. From the faculty viewpoint the major problem is still the role of the faculty member in his relationship to the students in group discussions. Some have the feeling that the students would gain more if the faculty member were to present his ideas as a main part of the discussion period; others believe that the major responsibility of the faculty member, in order to reach the objectives of the program, is to give the students a chance to discuss and evaluate each other's interpretations and reactions to the readings. Possibly this is a problem of objective more than anything else.

A "scientific" evaluation of the program is hard to make. The program is for liberal education, a development of attitudes and skills that (for the present at least) are hard to measure objectively. The only test known to the writer that can measure a number of these learnings is the Graduate Record Examination Area Tests. These have been required of all seniors at Dana College since they became available in 1954-55. The area tests seem to measure many of the kinds of development sought in the Liberal Arts Reading Program: such things as finding underlying assumptions, interpreting statements and making application of ideas. The scores of Dana seniors have increased noticeably in the area tests, especially in the humanities area, and students have informally reported that the readings have been of value to them in answering the questions. But this is not conclusive evidence and possibly none can be found. One does find frequent reference to the readings in both formal and informal discussion on campus.

Faculty members at Dana College continue as a group to be strongly in favor of the program. Dana students also are definitely for it. Though they often feel the pressure of time for doing the reading, most of them have the drive to want to know the great books. The large majority of students and faculty members would strongly urge other colleges to find some way of gaining the benefits of such a program. Perhaps the same plan would not function as satisfactorily with a much larger student group, but a faculty that becomes aware of the value of such a program can surely find a means of providing it.

Academic Woman

RUTH E. ECKERT and JOHN E. STECKLEIN

The woman as a college teacher—why she becomes one, how she compares with her male colleagues, and what can be done to attract more of her sisters to the profession

In a period when every source of high-level talent must be explored and utilized, special interest attaches to a study of women faculty members in American colleges. Although women account for only 22 per cent of all full-time academic staff members, both the numbers and the proportions of women college teachers must increase dramatically to meet soaring student enrolments. As several studies have shown,¹ the pool of underdeveloped talent is far larger for women than for men—making them the best single source for recruitment efforts.

A recent study of faculty members in one state—Minnesota—² including some representation of all 32 recognized higher institutions, throws interesting light on why women college teachers chose this field, how they view their jobs and what suggestions they have for recruiting and holding staff. Based on a 25 per cent stratified random sample of all full-time faculty members holding the rank of instructor or above and engaged in actual teaching, the Minnesota data were secured from 706 faculty members—or 94 per cent of all those whose cooperation had been invited. Of those who completed the four-page printed questionnaire, slightly more than a fourth (27.9 per cent or 197 respondents)³ were women faculty members. About the same proportion of women (24 per cent) participated in the depth interviews conducted with almost a hundred of those who returned questionnaires.

The present article deals with an aspect not touched on in the general report, namely the similarities and differences in the responses given by men and women faculty members. It seemed desirable to find out whether these people selected college teaching for essentially the same reasons, whether they prepared similarly for their present jobs and whether they now appraised college teaching in much the same way.

Implications of these findings for the recruiting and holding of women faculty members are suggested in a concluding section.

Background Information

To interpret properly the responses these women gave, both in the questionnaire and in interviews, it is important to know something of their personal and family backgrounds. More than two fifths (44 per cent) of them were born in Minnesota, as contrasted with only 25 per cent of the men, and likewise higher percentages of women came from other parts of the north-central area.⁴ Like their male colleagues most of these women had grown up in middle- and lower-class homes, in which the fathers had been tradesmen, farmers, skilled or semi-skilled workers. Typically neither parent had gone beyond the tenth grade, although the fathers of one fourth and the mothers of one fifth of the women's sample had had some college training, pointed chiefly toward educational and religious vocations. About a fifth of the women faculty members came from homes where one or both parents had been teachers. But excepting the higher proportions of women faculty members who had grown up in the Minnesota area, home background factors did not appear to differentiate the women from their male associates.

As might be expected, a much higher percentage of the women were single (54 per cent as against 17 per cent of the men). And rather surprisingly, the typical woman was some six years older than her male counterpart (48 as against 42 years of age)—a difference that showed up consistently in all four types of colleges studied.⁵ Whereas 46 per cent of the women had already reached their fiftieth birthday, only 26 per cent of the men were in this age group. The percentage of younger women attracted to college faculties has apparently been declining, despite the fact the college enrolments have more than doubled in the past twenty years.

Choice of College Teaching

Like their male colleagues few of these women had given any serious thought to college teaching during their undergraduate years, with only one in eight reporting this as a tentative choice of career at the time of graduation from college. As many of those interviewed noted, college teaching seemed to be a goal far removed from the aspirations of young women, although many planned to become elementary or secondary teachers (60 per cent of the women versus 35 per cent of the men re-

ported this goal at the time of college graduation). There was also some indication that parents had encouraged this latter choice for their daughters but not for their sons.

Although few of these future college teachers had definitely made up their minds by the time of graduation from college to join a college or university faculty some day, a significantly higher percentage of the men who became college teachers reported that they had viewed this career favorably as a personal goal (66 per cent of the men versus 50 per cent of the women gave this response). This contrasts with the strikingly similar percentages (74 for men and 78 for women) who looked upon college teaching as a desirable career for other people.

The three reasons which women faculty members most often cited as influencing their final decision to become college teachers were the offer of a college teaching job, though they had not sought it (mentioned by 60 per cent of the women and only 32 per cent of the men), their interest in working with college-age students (mentioned by 49 and 44 per cent respectively) and their desire to continue study in their subject field (specified by 40 and 44 per cent respectively).

Women, to a significantly lesser degree than men, ascribed their final choice of this career to factors directly associated with the job itself, such as the possibility of carrying on research (18 versus 32 per cent for men), good working conditions (33 versus 46 per cent), and the academic and social advantages a college faculty member enjoys (18 versus 26 per cent). They appeared to have been more influenced by external circumstances, such as being counseled in this direction by a respected teacher or counselor (39 per cent reported this as a contributing factor as compared with only 19 per cent of the men) or by being offered a college-level job, as noted above.

These findings seem to reflect some reluctance on the part of young women to visualize themselves as college teachers and hence to seek such a post. This view is supported by their later specification of the single factor that had most influenced their decision, for equal numbers of women mentioned internal and situational factors, whereas men identified personal interests and motivations more than twice as frequently as external factors. For both men and women these final decisions were usually reached some years after college graduation.

Preparation for College Teaching

Almost half of the women (43 per cent) had received some type of academic recognition as undergraduates, such as election to Phi Beta

Kappa or some other honor society, being granted a scholarship based on outstanding academic achievement or being graduated with honors. This was only slightly below the correlate figure (51 per cent) for men, suggesting that both groups had considerable potential for graduate work. Yet women students were much less likely to begin graduate work shortly after receiving their baccalaureate degrees. Although they had secured considerable parental help in financing their undergraduate work, they seemed to be on their own financially once they had their first degree. When asked how they managed to finance their advanced studies, significantly more women than men reported the use of personal savings, whereas men far exceeded women in the use of scholarships and fellowships, staff appointments as teaching and research assistants, GI aids and "earnings of a spouse" to finance extended periods of study.

This dearth of financial aids for women graduate students may partly explain why so few women continued to the doctorate, despite their excellent undergraduate records. Some earned only a single degree (13 per cent), supported in most instances by some advanced non-degree study, with the great majority reporting an M.A. or M.S. as their highest degree (49 per cent), again often buttressed by some study beyond this point. Only 26 per cent of the women, as contrasted with 51 per cent of the men, had earned their doctorates, even though the women had had six additional years on the average in which to fulfill graduate requirements.

The great investment of time that many women faculty members had made in elementary and secondary teaching probably contributed to this differential in training. Three fifths of the women (61 per cent as contrasted with 36 per cent of the men) reported that their first full-time job after college graduation had been in this field. A significantly higher proportion of women had also come directly to their present college jobs from a position in the lower schools (36 versus 17 per cent). Although the typical woman faculty member was 48 years old, she had been on a college or university faculty for only eight years, which suggests how recently many women joined college staffs.

Current Positions

Several notable differences also emerged in an analysis of these faculty members' current jobs. In indicating reasons for joining their present staffs, women mentioned more often than men that they liked the type of school, that they had been assigned to it (a response characteristic of members of religious orders) or that the position had been "available."

In contrast, men tended to stress the reputation of the school, the research opportunities it provided and the salary offered.

Only three fifths as many women as men had attained associate or full professorships (37 versus 56 per cent); they were also seriously under-represented in certain types of institutions (notably the university), and in certain subject fields, such as mathematics, the biological and physical sciences and most professional specialties. Two fields—the humanities and professional education—accounted for half of all the full-time women teachers serving in these colleges. Some of those interviewed, including both men and women, felt that women were discriminated against in many departments and that they could not compete effectively with their male colleagues for promotions or salary increases.

The duties performed by men and women faculty members in their present jobs also varied significantly, and in directions suggested by the earlier findings. Women gave more of their time to teaching and to services to student groups, whereas men devoted relatively more time to research activities, committee work and off-campus projects. The largest single difference related to research, where 63 per cent of the women, as compared with 36 per cent of the men, reported no time at all spent on research and scholarly writing. Were the recommendations that these faculty members made for a redistribution of their working time to be adopted, the above differences would become even greater. Although both men and women agreed that the greatest need for more time was in the area of research and scholarly writing, a much higher percentage of men than women (67 versus 47 per cent) stated this. On the other hand, a significantly higher percentage of women than men wanted to devote still more time to teaching and to student counseling, or said that they did not wish to see their present distribution of effort modified in any way.

Appraisals of College Teaching as a Career

When asked about the chief satisfactions they had experienced from faculty service, the vast majority of these faculty members agreed that they liked their present jobs and the status they enjoyed, professionally and socially, as college teachers. Women were more likely than men to mention "good students" and "desirable colleagues" as major sources of satisfaction, whereas male faculty members seemed to prize especially the opportunities that some college jobs provide for research and the freedom and independence enjoyed by college teachers. Both men and

women indicated relatively few dissatisfactions, although men were more articulate than women about the limited time available for scholarly study and the low salaries received.

General evaluations that these faculty members made of their career showed that almost half of both groups were "very satisfied" and that most of the rest had experienced "moderate satisfaction" from their service as college teachers. But men seemed a little more reluctant than women to do it all over again, with 19 per cent of the men and 11 per cent of the women saying that they were either doubtful or would not again become college teachers if they were now faced with this decision.

Suggestions for Recruitment and Retention of Staff

Given an opportunity to comment on ways of attracting qualified people into college teaching, both men and women faculty members stressed the need to raise salaries, with men giving greater emphasis to this than women (66 versus 44 per cent). Men also attached somewhat greater weight to the need for providing faculty members with "reasonable" teaching assignments, adequate clerical help, assistance on research projects and greater job security. Women faculty members, on the other hand, more frequently stressed the importance of providing counseling and guidance regarding career opportunities in this field, making more scholarships and other financial aids available to qualified candidates and furnishing adequate pre-service education.

In commenting on ways in which colleges might successfully hold faculty members, once they had been recruited to college teaching, a larger percentage of men again emphasized higher salaries, reductions in teaching loads, better facilities for research and the provisions of leaves for study. Women significantly exceeded men on only a single item, namely that administrators should be more generous in their commendation of faculty achievements (mentioned by 11 per cent of the women and 3 per cent of the men).

Summary and Implications

The present study, based on almost 200 women faculty members in Minnesota's 32 public and private colleges, underscores the need to attract women to careers in college teaching. To an even greater degree than their male colleagues, the women presently teaching in Minnesota colleges appear to be there more by accident than by clear design. Despite excellent undergraduate records, they were handicapped financially

in securing advanced training; this accounts partially for the long period many of them spent on elementary and secondary school staffs. In consequence, significantly fewer had earned a doctor's degree or had been promoted beyond an assistant professorship, despite the fact that the women were typically six years older than the male faculty members studied. Being burdened with the heavier teaching and service loads characteristic of junior-level positions, they also had little opportunity to do the research and scholarly writing on which professional advancement so often depends.

Despite such handicaps, these women faculty members appeared to be as satisfied with their choice of career as their male colleagues were and even more ready to reaffirm it, given the opportunity to re-make the decision. But the pattern of their reported satisfactions differed somewhat, with a greater emphasis placed on good human relations as contrasted with the emphasis that men gave to material rewards, opportunities to do creative work in their subject fields and the freedom and independence associated with faculty service. Recommendations given for recruiting and retaining qualified faculty members revealed similar differences, with the women apparently more sensitive to the human factors, such as providing counseling for prospective faculty members and developing harmonious administrative-faculty relationships, and the men more concerned about program adjustments, research facilities and the rewards given for effective service.

At least three major implications can be drawn from these findings for the future staffing of college and university programs. In the first place, a more determined effort must be made to acquaint women undergraduates with the opportunities and satisfactions of careers in this field. If this is done effectively, many of those who had planned to teach in the lower schools may view such service as a possible stepping-stone to a college position, and others, whose primary commitment is to a subject field rather than to the teaching function, will glimpse the rich possibilities of developing their scholarly interests through membership in a college faculty. Several faculty members suggested in their interviews that the college teaching profession should be talked about and made more attractive to grade school and high school students; others urged that promising undergraduate students be used as assistants and student teachers in order to get them actively involved in the field.

Secondly, financial support for graduate studies must be made more widely available to qualified women students. To defer such study until

a young teacher can finance the program for herself often results in the long postponement or abandonment of such plans. Studies are urgently needed to find out what financial aids in the way of graduate scholarships, fellowships and assistantships are now open to qualified women students and what the major blocks may be to making full use of these opportunities.

The in-service education of women faculty members likewise demands attention. Since most women teachers have not completed a doctoral program, they stand in special need of leaves for advanced study and of adjustments in their loads that will encourage completion of a thesis and other types of scholarly endeavor. Encouragement in this direction given by perceptive administrators and colleagues will reinforce these efforts, since women faculty members appear to be strongly influenced by such recognition. In institutions where faculty members, without regard to sex, are helped to reach their full professional stature and to know the abiding satisfactions of college teaching, both men and women students will be attracted to careers in this field. Women faculty members who are genuinely respected and honored on the local campus may be particularly effective in this respect, since their presence will help gifted women students to identify themselves with the role of the college teacher and to prepare themselves for this service.

1. Dael, Wolfe, *America's Resources of Specialized Talent*, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1954, and the Educational Policies Commission, *Manpower and Education*, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1957.

2. John E. Stecklein and Ruth E. Eckert, *An Exploratory Study of Factors Influencing the Choice of College Teaching as a Career*, conducted under a grant from the Cooperative Research Program, U. S. Office of Education, 1958.

3. These 197 women included 158 in four-year colleges (86 in private liberal arts colleges, 29 in state colleges, and 43 at the University of Minnesota) and 39 teaching in junior colleges. The statistics used in the present report are based on those teaching in baccalaureate and advanced programs.

4. Where differences are mentioned in the text, they satisfy at least the .05 level of confidence (indicating that chance alone would account for these differences only once in twenty instances). Those characterized as "significant" meet the .01 confidence level, which provides a more rigorous test of their importance.

5. See Stecklein and Eckert, *op. cit.*, for separate analyses of the junior college, private liberal arts college, state college and university samples, on this and other points touched on in the present article.

Undergraduate Training in International Relations

RONALD J. YALEM

Some problems involved in setting up an effective course of study in a rapidly growing field

The study of international relations is a new development on the American educational scene that has grown rapidly in response to the expanded role of the United States in world affairs. In recent years centers, institutes, departments and even schools of international affairs have been established to provide preliminary and advanced instruction in this field. At the undergraduate level, however, most instruction in international relations is relegated to political science departments or to committees responsible for the administration of interdepartmental programs. It is the purpose of this article to present a summary of some of the important problems involved in organizing an international relations curriculum at the undergraduate level.¹

Reasons for Study

Waldemar Gurian, late Professor of International Relations at the University of Notre Dame, justified the separate study of international relations on the following grounds: (1) because international relations is a study of the interaction of various cultures, it is entitled to a place in general education; (2) such study can perform a useful integrating function by showing how several social sciences play a role in international relations; (3) through such integration the study of international relations contributes to a deeper understanding of other social sciences.²

From the viewpoint of the student who enrolls in international relations courses, however, the reasons for study may be quite different. Not infrequently the main reason is the hope that a study of international relations will provide the key to a desirable professional position in the government or in a public international organization such as the United Nations. It is unfortunate that many colleges and universities do not

warn their students in advance that the number of opportunities in the international field open to students with a bachelor's degree is extremely limited. With the exception of the Foreign Service such positions as are available usually require considerably more academic preparation or specialized experience or both.

Most educators believe that undergraduate training in international relations should not be vocational, because of the conviction that the aim of liberal education is to train well-rounded individuals and not specialists. Despite this belief a number of institutions have concentrated on preparing undergraduate students for professional opportunities, chiefly the Foreign Service, and others have designated their programs as pre-professional. No objection need be taken to the latter, for there exists a need (though still limited) for professional specialists with graduate training. But there is a danger in leading students into the belief that they will find a position in the field immediately after graduation. Too many students enrol in undergraduate professional programs, fail the Foreign Service tests, or become disgusted with waiting for an appointment, and find themselves sadly disillusioned. In the majority of institutions offering work in international relations, however, the emphasis is on the cultural and intellectual value to be derived from a study of world affairs.

The problem of whether undergraduate training should be vocational or cultural seems likely to remain as long as students continue to think of international relations as a vocation. The ideal solution lies in making academic programs in international relations flexible enough to provide opportunities for cultural as well as pre-professional training. While this may be practicable in larger institutions which can afford the expense involved, it is not feasible for the great majority of liberal arts colleges, where emphasis on the cultural value of world affairs courses should be stressed.

The Introductory Course

One of the major difficulties in the construction of an undergraduate international relations curriculum is the organization and content of the beginning course. This difficulty stems from the lack of differentiation in current programs between the "introductory" course for students who will pursue further studies and the "terminal" course for those who will not.³ As a result of this practice, there is a tendency to present the introductory course at the junior level where it will reach only a few students.⁴ Yet the need to provide a general introductory course at the

sophomore level, where it will benefit the greatest number of students, is obvious, since many will later become the civic and professional leaders who are influential in their communities in guiding intelligent public opinion on foreign policy issues.

Assuming that the need exists for a lower-division introductory course, there remains the important problem of the organization and content of such a course. Generally colleges and universities have organized initial instruction in international relations in three different patterns: (1) an integrated social science course for the first two years; (2) an introductory course in international relations in the sophomore year; (3) through introductory courses in political science, history and economics.*

With regard to content there is the problem of whether emphasis should be laid on providing a broad general background for the non-specialist or a specific foundation for those who will take further work in the field.* In the integrated social science course the emphasis is placed on general background material which, however, is often incomplete and superficial. Most introductory courses in international relations on the other hand attempt to provide the student with a thorough knowledge of the basic elements of the subject. Few schools, however, can provide the expense of two introductory courses utilizing both broad and specific approaches.

A cognate problem involved in the integrated social science course, as well as in introductory courses in political science, history and economics, is the difficulty of relating material on international organization, international politics and international law to the content of these courses. Integration of international relations materials into social science courses is often unsatisfactory because the limited amount of such materials that can be introduced is hardly enough for the student to gain any real understanding of the forces and processes of international relations. Relating international materials to general courses in political science, history and economics is likewise apt to prove unsatisfactory because limitations of time require that priority be given to domestic descriptions and analyses. While this may not be true of certain history courses, there is the danger that the mere recounting of recent international history omits the motivating factors.

It is the belief of the writer that the most satisfactory means of introducing the student to the study of international relations is a general introductory course at the sophomore level. But even in this type of course there are difficulties. The vast amount of material to be covered

presents a problem, especially if a one-semester course is offered. Also the instructor should be capable of properly presenting the contributions of other social sciences to the study of international relations.⁷ This requires a teacher who can competently select those aspects of economics, political science, history and geography which affect international relations—not an easy task for instructors trained exclusively in one academic discipline. Yet it is not mandatory to be an expert in all of these fields but only to possess or be able to acquire a working knowledge of them. In this connection it is interesting to note the efforts of the Ford Foundation to improve the teaching of international relations by providing fellowships to enable professors of international relations to broaden their competency through study of a new discipline.

The Major

Although most colleges and universities do not offer a major in the field of international relations, there has been an increasing tendency in recent years toward the development of international relations programs in political science departments, through the use of interdepartmental committees and, in a few instances, in separate departments (Lehigh University, University of Denver, University of South Carolina) or schools (Georgetown University's School of Foreign Service, American University's School of International Service, Woodrow Wilson School of Foreign Affairs of the University of Virginia, the School of International Affairs at Columbia University). Before the advent of such programs, students in political science departments interested in an international specialization frequently had to shop around other departments to find courses suited to their needs. The newly developed programs have alleviated this problem, and the rarity of institutions offering a major is hardly a calamity in view of the limited employment opportunities available for students with undergraduate, or even graduate, training in this field.

What should be the scope and content of the courses included in a major? This is an important question to consider in any discussion of undergraduate training in international relations. Differences exist as to what should be required and what recommended courses, with the listing depending largely on the personnel and courses at the command of the particular school, department or interdepartmental committee administering the curriculum. There is, however, some degree of consensus.

A group of experts assembled at the Conference on the Teaching of

International Relations held at Charlottesville, Virginia, in 1950 agreed that the ideal program for the major would include the following courses: "international politics, international law and organization, international economics, political philosophy, American and European diplomatic history, American foreign policy, political, economic and cultural geography, language competency, international social psychology and communications." This is a formidable list of subjects, which cannot all be included in the studies of the average undergraduate for lack of time. If the list were reduced to a basic minimum, the essential courses, in the opinion of the writer, would be international politics, organization and law; international economics; American and European diplomatic history; political geography, and a foreign language.

The place of regional specialization in the curriculum of the major is worth considering in view of the popularity of area study programs in recent years. While it would be desirable for the student to take courses dealing with the problems of each area of the world, this is manifestly impossible in view of time limitations. Moreover such specialization as may be undertaken should come only after the student has mastered the functional fields of international relations, for without that training he cannot properly analyze the effect of the problems of particular regions on the international community. For this reason it is advisable that only a few regional courses be included within the major. Regional concentration is generally more encouraged at the graduate level when the student is mature enough to pursue the specialized study of certain areas.

Problems of Administration

The argument for keeping the study of international relations within departments of political science is based on the belief not only that the core subjects of international law, organization and politics have traditionally been taught in such departments but also that they constitute an integral part of political science. While it is true, however, that sovereignty, power and law embrace political processes, they also involve economic, cultural and sociopsychological factors that transcend the confines of a single academic department. The issue obviously touches on the hotly debated question whether international relations is a separate academic discipline, an issue which is outside the scope of this article. Yet the problem has an important practical element, principally fear of the loss of students, courses and prestige through the creation of separate departments of international relations.

The most important disadvantage in retaining administration of international relations programs in political science departments is that students who desire an extensive international specialization as the basis for further graduate work are required to take courses in all divisions of the department, thereby reducing the time available for courses in the international field. Furthermore courses taken outside the department cannot ordinarily be counted toward the major, as is possible under the interdepartmental committee system.

The greatest advantage of keeping the study of international relations within political science departments is that they are likely to be more firmly established in regard to budget and personnel than the independent department. This is especially true in smaller educational institutions. In addition, political science departments can theoretically provide closer counseling and supervision of students than is obtainable through an interdepartmental committee under which instruction is spread over many departments.

The increasing use of the interdepartmental committee is based on the assumption that international relations is not a new and distinct field of study but a synthesis of many. Therefore it is felt that the greatest benefit for the student derives from an interdisciplinary approach free from the formalities of a single academic department. While this argument is not without merit, there are many practical difficulties. For example, there is the possibility of friction among the members of the various departments comprising the committee over the priority of courses to be offered. Also faculty members in many schools are already overburdened with committee work and may be reluctant to devote time to an interdepartmental committee, thereby depriving it of needed specialists. Finally, satisfactory supervision and counseling of interdepartmental majors would appear to be difficult under this type of arrangement unless the predominant responsibility for directing the curriculum is vested in one department.

The impetus behind the movement to create separate departments of international relations stems from the belief that international relations forms a valid field of study by virtue of its integration of elements of several social sciences and, if properly taught, must overlap their existing boundaries. In addition, there is the more practical justification that concentration of instruction within a separate department permits more coordination through the use of specialized personnel and a separate budget. The chief disadvantage to the establishment of separate depart-

ments is the danger of overspecialization in an attempt to cover all aspects of international questions where teaching personnel are for the most part schooled in one rather than several disciplines. For this reason it is essential that the closest cooperation be maintained with other social science departments in order that the student may be properly guided into courses which can enhance his understanding and appreciation of the contribution of other disciplines to the study of international relations.

The preceding discussion points up significant differences regarding the scope and content of this new social science. Such disagreements as exist, however, are not to be condemned as reflecting the chaos that surrounds the field of international relations. On the contrary they are healthy signs of a maturing academic discipline very much like the process of growth which the older established social sciences have experienced. It is likely that as the field of international relations becomes more mature through the researches of its pioneers and the processes of time, the area of disagreement and uncertainty regarding the organization of the curriculum will diminish.

1. See also Vincent Baker, *The Introductory Course in International Relations*, Universities and World Affairs Series, no. 52, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, New York, 1954; Charles O. Lerche and Burton M. Sopin (eds.), *Some Problems in the Teaching of International Politics*, Emory University, Atlanta, 1958.

2. Waldemar Gurian, "On the Study of International Relations," *Review of Politics*, July 1946, 8:281.

3. Howard E. Wilson, *Universities in World Affairs*, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, New York, 1951, p. 39.

4. Grayson Kirk, *The Study of International Relations in American Colleges and Universities*, Council on Foreign Relations, New York, 1947, p. 33.

5. Brookings Institution, *Report on a Conference on the Teaching of International Relations*, The Brookings Institution, Washington, D. C., 1950, p. 10.

6. *Ibid.*, p. 11.

7. In this connection see my paper on "Contributions of the Behavioral Sciences to the Study and Teaching of International Politics," in *Problems in the Teaching of International Politics*, *op. cit.*

Personnel Problems in Academic Administration

MARTEN TEN HOOR

What makes the administrator's job so difficult, indicates the dean in this wise and witty analysis, is that the personnel on a campus perversely refuses to think of itself as "personnel"

I

Experts in the field often divide the problems of administration, whether they be those of an army, an industry or an educational institution, into two kinds: operational problems and personnel problems or problems of human relations. The former are concerned with and arise in the course of routine activities, such as paper work, and are more or less mechanical in nature; the latter arise in activities of a higher order, for example in decision making, and are psychological in nature. Since at least some kinds of paper work have to be done by human beings, it is obvious that this distinction is to some extent a theoretical one. It is nevertheless valid enough to permit the assertion that this essay is concerned with problems of human relations in academic administration.

There will thus be no talk about "management." The term invariably gives offense to members of an academic community, at least to those who are concerned with educational activities. Since it is borrowed from industry, professors are inclined to feel that the administrator who uses it may be of the opinion that human beings are things and should be treated accordingly. Professors do not object to presidents and deans managing *things*; in fact they are inclined to think that this is their only proper function. But they strenuously object to the idea that administrators should manage *professors*. They may be willing to grant that professors and administrators sometimes "manage" one another in sly, undercover ways, but they want no official legitimation of such techniques. In the discussion which follows there will be talk only about problems of human relations as they arise in "open-and-above-board"

academic administration. Moreover, because of the limitations of the writer's knowledge and experience, the discussion will be concerned principally with administrative problems in a state university.

Now human relations are not disconnected from everything else, unless we think of them as abstractions, as some social theorists do. Concrete human relations exist in a specific setting; in fact they are to a considerable extent created by that setting.

Among the determinants of the character of personnel problems in a university there is first of all the nature of the institution as a legal entity. The scope and character of administration in a university is to some extent predetermined by the charter which was granted to the institution by the state legislature. This charter establishes the primary institutional authority and to a varying extent the hierarchy of delegated authority. Since the people elect the legislature and the principal officials of the government, the authority of a chartered state institution is originally democratic in origin. This authority is vested in a board of trustees. The trustees delegate authority to the president and sometimes specifically and directly to other administrative officers. Unless otherwise provided in the charter or in the constitution of the board of trustees or by its specific acts, the authority of presidents, deans, faculty and student body is delegated authority. The legal authority of everybody in a university comes therefore from the top down and not from the bottom up. The responsibility of the various officials is not directly to the people but to the immediately superior academic authority. In the formation of democratic governments there is usually provision for protection of the citizens from the abuse of authority by officials and branches of the government. Few charters of educational institutions have any direct provisions limiting the authority of presidents and deans. All this is determined by practice and precedent or by the will of the top administrative authorities—or of AAUP. When such authority is resented, the complainant may insist that its exercise was unwise or unprofessional or even morally wrong, but he cannot justly claim that it was illegal.

A second determinant of the nature of personnel problems is the "professional" character of the personnel of a university. The first fact to be recognized is that every member of the faculty is a specialist in his field and thus knows more about his specific educational function than does any administrative officer. When therefore a member of the faculty or some outsider is appointed president or dean he is placed in authority over a group of highly trained specialists about whose educational func-

tions he is wholly or partially ignorant. Sometimes he is less ignorant than the faculty realizes, but ignorant he must necessarily be to some degree.

The position of a dean is particularly anomalous: though he knows more about the educational functions of the faculty than does the president, he still knows less than the professors. He hangs suspended somewhere between the president and the faculty. The position of a dean is such a difficult one because he has to serve cheerfully under his inferiors—and over his superiors. Naturally the faculty does not feel entirely comfortable under this arrangement. Since it is the faculty that performs the real functions of the institution, namely the *educational* functions, its members feel that they ought at least to share in the administrative authority. The more radical members are of the opinion that the whole order of authority should be turned upside down and things so arranged that the faculty elects the president and deans and any other administrative officers who have more than menial duties to perform.

The third factor to be considered is the academic personality. To be sure, professors in general are just like other human beings, including administrative officers. But the genus professor has some special if not unique characteristics which are due to the fact that his interests and needs and ambitions and feelings and thoughts are attached to quite different kinds of objects than is the case with the members of an industrial organization. The professor's indignation and resentment are aroused by things to which the member of an industrial organization would be entirely indifferent.

First, as has already been mentioned, the professor is an expert in his field. He is not merely a human adjunct to a conveyor belt. Technically speaking, he may be an employee of the state, but he is nobody's hired man—least of all the president's or the dean's. The fact of his expert learning makes him an *authority* and entitles him to be a partner in the administration of the educational enterprise. He believes that his knowledge gives him the right, nay lays upon him the obligation, to speak out on his subject—and occasionally to offer a few remarks on related subjects. Since he is committed to discover and disseminate the truth in the field of his expert knowledge, he insists on the right to talk about it as he sees proper. The only function of the administration is to create hospitable conditions for his activities and to protect him when they are interfered with. As every administrator knows, we have to do here with one of the most sensitive areas of human relations in a university.

In the second place, the professor is inclined to consider himself a

moral agent: he is concerned with making people better. He is not exactly a preacher but he does a little conceive of his profession as a calling. A professor can hardly be said to be engaged in saving souls but he is certainly engaged in improving minds. He feels he would be making a much greater contribution to the improvement of mankind were there not so many unimproved minds directing his efforts. Because the fundamental moral importance of his calling is by no means generally recognized, he has become somewhat sensitive on this subject.

Thirdly the professor does not produce things but develops human beings. He may be a little like an old-fashioned artisan but he is certainly nothing like a machine-hand. That is one reason why he resents having too many students: it prevents him from performing his educational task properly. Moreover the professor resents the fact that the raw materials with which he must work are of uneven and often hopelessly poor quality. How can he be asked to take responsibility for the results? The professor believes that he does not have enough to say about pre-college preparation and about who should and who should not be admitted to his classes. He is of the opinion that administrative officers are too much concerned with numbers and with the reactions of the public. In his opinion, to borrow a phrase from business, the administration is too much inclined to take the position that the customer is always right, whereas he feels that the customer is much more likely to be wrong.

II

These are some of the determinants of the special character of the "human relations" which exist in a university between professors and administrators and which must be taken into account in the solution of personnel problems. Let us turn to some of these concrete problems. There is first of all the troublesome area of promotions in rank and increases in salary. It is obvious that the administrator must understand the personal and professional attitudes of the professor towards these forms of recognition. They are unquestionably important sources of motivation and no academic administrative officer worthy of the name would dream of ignoring them. But men and women who have committed themselves to an academic career have other motivations—and it is fortunate for education that they do. There are individuals whose most important drive lies in their love of teaching, or their interest in advancing the knowledge of their particular subject, or both. These are motives which are entirely self-generated and for the nourishment of which the

professor is not dependent upon anyone or anything else. They are the most enduring of all motivations. Whereas attainment of a satisfactory salary and top professorial rank might tempt an individual to rest on his oars, these deeper motives will energize him until they are exhausted by age. If a professor is not devoted to teaching or research or both, he is not in the right profession and no rank or salary will make him a good professor or a contented one. To be sure, this is no reason for a lack of interest in higher salaries on the part of administrators. I have seen now and then a tendency on the part of an administrator to talk and act as if being a professor was almost enough of a privilege in itself, or that the professor, like the preacher, should expect most of his reward in heaven. This is the kind of attitude which is likely to develop when an individual is already assured of his reward on earth, as I presume most presidents are.

In respect to rank, I should like to make one or two observations. Promotion in rank is very important to many faculty members because it advances them in academic dignity and *per se* brings greater prestige in the profession. One of the most difficult personnel problems for the administrator in this area is the problem of balance and distribution of ranks in a particular department. Expense is at least one reason why large institutions cannot afford to have all senior professors in a department. A reasonable distribution must be maintained. As a result, the administrator is frequently faced with the problem of faculty members who ought to be promoted but whose promotion is automatically blocked because of saturation in the next higher rank. What to do about this? Not much can be done. An escape from this is for the stymied faculty member to move, but that is harsh counsel. An administrative escape is to increase salary but not promote in rank. This is likely to be a snare and a delusion, at least if there is a salary scale. What happens is that the person whose salary but not rank was increased will be back in two or three years and call the attention of the dean to the fact that he has the proper salary but not the appropriate rank, or, if the man was promoted but his salary was not increased, vice versa. Deliberately to create such a state of affairs is to invite enduring rebuke and to establish a constant source of bad feeling.

Another cause of strained relations and of troubled conscience to the administrator is the existence of inequalities in the budget, particularly in respect to salary. No matter how careful and how fair the administrator tries to be, such indefensible inequalities will develop in a large budget. There are various causes: for example, shortage of money, oc-

currence of unforeseen vacancies, special replacement needs and administrative oversights. Occasionally there is prejudice somewhere. The first need is to discover these inequalities—all of them—and to correct them at budget time. The maintenance of a summary which at a glance or two indicates the comparative status of salaries and thus reveals inequalities is very useful. Especially is this necessary in a large budget, for no dean can keep all such cases in mind.

When it comes to the technique of increasing salaries, we are again faced with a choice between imperfect procedures. The system of automatic salary increases is an easy answer. It unquestionably makes life more comfortable for the administrator and more secure for the professor. These are praiseworthy objects, but I am inclined to think that for a dean to try to realize them is contrary to nature: no dean ought to expect to be so comfortable. It is not true that this plan ignores merit, as has been claimed: it simply assumes equal merit. But this too is contrary to nature. Moreover it is not likely to satisfy the faculty in the long run. Any such mechanical scheme, though it may solve one phase of the problem, is certain to be objected to as preventing the recognition of individual merit.

What system then should be used in determining salary increases? Personally I believe in combining the across-the-board plan and the individual merit plan whenever possible. This can rather easily be done if the budget is increased by a substantial amount. Then everybody can be satisfied to a small degree, at least in theory, and a varying number be rewarded to an additional extent. One great advantage of an across-the-board increase is that it demonstrates to the faculty universal appreciation on the part of the administration. But that leaves us with the difficult problem of individual merit increases. Some faculty people doubt the capacity of the administrative officer to distinguish degrees of merit. If the opinion were that no dean can do this accurately and thus with complete fairness, I would agree at once. But it does not necessarily follow that anyone else, say the professor himself or the head of his department, could do it any better. Whatever the case, do it the dean must. How now is he, or any administrative officer for that matter, to measure the degree of presence or lack of it?

When this question is discussed, there is usually frequent reference to "professional productivity," a term which sounds as if it might have been borrowed from industry. The products of an educational institution are not things, however, but human beings, and there is no accurate way

of measuring the quality of this product. Moreover this quality often does not become evident until long after the production process has been completed. Professors and administrators do not bury their mistakes: they do not even hear of them. Like all producers, they point with pride to individuals who many years after graduation loom large on the horizon. But neither in the case of these exceptions nor of glaring failures nor of those thousands of graduates who remain forever obscure has anybody any way of determining what causative part the individual professor or even the whole faculty has played in their destinies.

The basic reason for this is that the educative process is not measurable. Let us use teaching and research as examples. The dean's information on the quality of teaching of a particular member of the faculty comes to him largely through a process which I shall call natural precipitation, that is by way of occasional reports, rumors, reactions of parents and alumni—usually distilled through higher administrative sources—comments of colleagues and so on. The only form of systematic measurement so far devised are student and faculty rating scales. Used in substantial quantities, they probably give a fairly reliable evaluation. But they are far from popular. Although the opposition is becoming less, very few faculties will agree to the use of these scales for their own enlightenment, and even fewer to the use of them by administrative officers.

To be sure, the dean calls on the head of the department for information. Though he knows much more about the matter than the dean, he usually still does not know enough. Moreover many heads of departments are reluctant to jeopardize the advancement in rank and salary of a member of the department by giving an unfavorable report on his teaching. The head of the department is just as desirous of helping all of the members of his staff as the dean is of helping all of his faculty. Both of them feel that any increase in the budget is justified, even in a weak cause. Because of all these limitations, the dean has little positive evidence in the area of teaching except in the extreme cases of very good and very poor teachers. It is no wonder that many administrators simply take the easy way and make decisions wholesale. To make distinctions one must have sound reasons, and these are difficult to obtain. What makes matters worse is that the individual who is passed over is not likely to accept the administrator's evaluation of him.

In the case of research, the situation is somewhat easier, if for no other reason than that usually a smaller fraction of the faculty will be involved. The best method of evaluation here is simply counting. This is of

course an unreliable method, but a dean is too ignorant to evaluate faculty production in terms of scholarly excellence, ultimate importance, etc. He may find some help in information about a scholar's reputation which he picks up casually at meetings. A reliable if unwelcome indication of a scholar's standing in the world is his receipt of an offer from an important institution. But then it is usually too late to recognize merit, or if merit has been recognized, to compound the reward. The problem of determining the relative weight of teaching, research and other faculty services is too well known to require more than mention here.

To summarize, then, though there is little to summarize: obtain all possible information, interpret all data carefully and objectively, be willing to give your reasons to parties who are entitled to know them—which includes in my book the individual most concerned—be as consistent and fair as you can and stick by your guns. Avoid explosions if you can, but if you cannot, go home and lick your wounds in private. One further remark here: little certain knowledge as the dean has, the president, at least in a large institution, has even less. The moral of that is obvious enough. In spite of all these uncertainties, the dean or the president must make the final decision. This is a right and a responsibility which has been delegated to him, either specifically or generally. It ought to be understood in the administrative hierarchy who takes this responsibility, and then this person ought to be supported and protected by the other administrative officers.

This brings me to a general principle which is basic to good administration: there should be good teamwork. Let the dean and the president keep their disagreements to themselves as much as is humanly possible. Leave to the professor and the head of the department the privilege and pleasure of placing the blame on the dean or the president. Nothing so quickly demoralizes an organization as the conviction that there is serious disagreement between administrative officers. If a dean cannot reconcile himself to the policies of the president, he had better give up his office or go deaning elsewhere. Mild quarreling among the palace guard has no worse result than to provide entertainment for the faculty; but serious disagreement disrupts and demoralizes the whole campus, for everybody, including students, will choose sides and many will take shrewd advantage of the official disharmony.

III

I should like now to turn to another popular assumption, namely that administration is *leadership*. I have already made the point that the term

"management" is one which it is unwise to use on the campus. It is also advisable to shy away for the term "leadership." Of course this term may well be used in reference to the president, formally and in public at least. As for deans, I am inclined to feel that in their case the term would be more flattering than accurate and that therefore the use of it is a poor investment. There certainly can be no talk about the dean exerting influence on the professor in the classroom. Here is where the professor considers himself to be king. And not only in respect to his teaching—that is to say, in the area of academic freedom. Some professors feel that they even have the right to decide whether or not they will observe regulations governing such routine administrative matters as taking attendance and making absence reports. There can also be no talk, except in a very low key, about leadership in the area of the curriculum. This is an area which belongs to the faculty. Now I do not mean to imply that the dean should be merely a presiding officer. On the contrary I believe that he should participate in debate. If parliamentary purists in his faculty insist that to have this privilege he must resign the chair, well and good. But the dean is also a member of the faculty and has a right to his opinions and to the expression of them. He must be neutral in his parliamentary actions but he does not have to be neutral in his opinions.

There is one area in which the administrator must definitely assume leadership and that is in the enforcement of rules and regulations and in the maintenance of standards. Enforcement of standards is also not a simple problem. Standards are only in a very formal way prescribed—for example, in the form of requirements for graduation. We have grading scales, but each professor is free to apply them as he sees fit. This is another area in which the professor claims academic freedom. Interference by the dean is sometimes strongly resented, even by professors who agree with him that there was occasion for it. One of the most effective indirect ways of "exerting leadership" in this area is to prepare regularly, say at the end of each semester, a summary of grade distributions by individuals and departments, so that each member of the faculty can compare his grading standards with those of every other member. The dean may even be so bold as to call attention to eccentric departures from normality. Of course the most serious mistake which the administrator can make in this area is to exert pressure, or to *seem* to be exerting pressure, in the direction of lowering standards.

Let me turn now to leadership in the sense in which the general public—though not the faculty—is wont to ascribe it to academic administrative officers, particularly presidents, namely *intellectual* leadership. This is

worth an essay by itself, but I can only refer to it briefly here. The general public assumes that because a man is made president or dean, this is an indication that he is a "deep thinker" on educational problems. Sometimes the president or dean agrees with this assumption: it is more or less natural to do so. The assumption however involves mistaken identification of the lubrication and guidance of the machinery of education with the educative process itself. Now I do not mean to assert that a president or a dean may not actually be a "deep thinker" on the subject of education as such. But this is not necessarily so. Even when it is so, the faculty is certain to be reluctant to acknowledge it, for they are inclined to look upon it as against nature.

The conclusion to which all this leads is that a president or dean must never assume that the faculty will accept authoritarian intellectual leadership. There are two convictions held by the faculty which condition them against such acceptance: the first, already mentioned, is the conviction that the administrative officer—except possibly in the area of his own specialty, if he happens to have one—is ignorant of the subject matter with which the faculty is concerned; the second is the conviction that a college or university should be a community of scholars and that the direction and, in many areas, the administration of education should be a cooperative process. It is wise policy, therefore, for an administrative officer to establish opportunity for faculty participation in areas of administration where it is practicable.

This is a generalization which no one can be expected to accept at its face value. If he does, he will obviously be committing himself to nothing specific. But I cannot within the compass of this article give a bill of particulars. Suffice it to mention one obvious example. This is the area of the organization of the curriculum and, by implication, the determination of the requirements for graduation. No matter how much an academic administrative officer may have thought and read on this subject, he needs the wisdom of the faculty. The balancing and integration of the curriculum require group deliberation and group action. It is true that there will be rivalry, conflict and individual and departmental maneuvering. But here the nature of the democratic process comes to the rescue. The conclusions finally arrived at, though their attainment may take much time and talk, are more likely to be wise, and what is almost equally important, acceptable, than if a single administrative officer is the author of them. Any single educator, be he professor or dean, is hardly competent to make these broad, fundamental educational decisions. When such

issues are decided by a majority vote of the faculty, the whole faculty is committed, including the minority.

It is a good feeling for an administrator to know that he is enforcing regulations with the authority of the faculty. He will get much more cooperation. It strengthens his position with the students. Faculty participation is also a good morale builder. A happy, and of course unintentional, by-product of the use of the democratic process is that it draws a lot of fire away from the dean: the faculty will dispute among themselves instead of with the dean. It will also lead the dean to make an interesting discovery, namely that some members of the faculty are much more enthusiastic about the democratic process when they are in the majority than when they are in the minority. Finally let him have no illusions about what will happen in a crisis: he will still be held personally responsible. He cannot very well arrange to have an irate parent or a university officer or a delegation of students perform before the faculty.

In connection with this whole problem of democratic procedures, I wish to recognize one cogent objection which can be made against administration by gross faculty action, at least with large university faculties: the unpreparedness of a large percentage of the products of our graduate schools for participation in educational administration. Most young Ph.D.'s, though they may have had a little teaching experience as "section hands" in large departments, have had neither the occasion nor the time to think about basic educational policies. Their principal interest is to "get going" in the profession—and as soon as possible to teach a course in the area of their dissertation. Some of them scarcely know how a university is organized. Yet they are expected to vote on basic educational issues immediately or very soon after receiving their degrees. Some faculties solve this problem by limiting their voting privileges for a designated period. But many faculty members object to this on the ground that variation in preparedness for citizenship is one of the risks which we must take in democratic government. This seems to me to involve an analogy of doubtful validity, but I do not wish to argue the point. Personally I believe that temporary limitation of voting privileges is a sound and justifiable preventive measure. Taking the long view of the problem, it seems obvious that something should be done in our graduate schools by way of conditioning subject-matter specialists for participation in faculty action.

An example of an area in which the democratic process is not likely to work, and cannot be expected to do so, is the matter of salary increases.

It might possibly have some chance of success in a very small faculty: in a large one I think failure is certain. I have known of only one such attempt and it was soon given up. I have heard of an institution in which decisions on both salary and promotions are made by the department acting as a committee, but I have no reliable information as to the results of this procedure. I have heard both faculty members and administrators object to departmental decision, and even to departmental recommendation, on the ground that there can be no frank discussion of merits and demerits in a departmental meeting without serious risk of bad feeling and resultant internal disharmony. In an institution of my acquaintance a proposal has been made to establish a dean's advisory committee on the budget, the members of which are to be appointed by the president on the recommendation of the dean. It is understood that under this plan the committee has the right to make an independent recommendation to the president in case the dean and the committee fail to agree. I know of one institution in which such a committee has been in existence for several years and has operated successfully.

There is no time for discussion of other specific plans. Before leaving this subject, however, I should like to make the point that there is another way of assuring faculty participation, or at least a substantial amount of it, namely by the process of informal democracy. This is the method of obtaining a representative expression of opinion from the faculty by means of personal conferences with influential members of the faculty, by informal group meetings and by means of advisory committees. This kind of informal democracy, of which many administrative officers make generous use, is a kind of happy medium between authoritarian and formal by democratic procedure. Occasional meetings of heads of departments for the informal discussion of important policy matters, and sometimes for the registration of group opinion, are a good example. These discussions serve more than one good purpose: they serve to lay the groundwork for later submission of matters to the entire faculty; they give an opportunity for discussion of matters which might better be considered in confidence, and they add greatly to the knowledge and wisdom of the dean.

Something of this order can also be effectively used in the business of making new appointments. I recognize that some faculty members feel that the authority to make a new appointment, or at least the right to make a recommendation that shall be binding on the administration, ought to be vested in the faculty or some part of it. This is the under-

lying principle; various procedures may be followed. The right to make a binding recommendation may be assigned to the department concerned, to a divisional committee—for example a committee of the division of the humanities—or to a faculty committee on appointments. With the compulsory feature of these plans I disagree, principally because it is the dean who will be held responsible for mistakes. I should also like to point out that faculty members outside the department concerned may well be quite as ignorant in the area of a particular appointment as the dean. But I do believe in the right of the department to be freely consulted, particularly on the choice of a head of the department, for it is the members of the department who will have to live with the new appointee.

Now there are again two ways of proceeding to obtain the opinion of the members of the department: (a) by requesting a formal departmental vote and (b) by requesting individual expressions of opinion, with the assurance that, if members desire, these opinions will be kept confidential. It has been my experience that members of a department are by no means always completely at peace with one another, in which case some will be reluctant to speak out in open meeting. This is a confusing and vitiating influence if a formal expression of the opinion of the whole department is solicited. Dissident members are likely to be much more frank with the dean. A happy by-product of the individual, confidential approach is that by means of it the dean will collect a lot of useful information. One general fact needs to be kept in mind in connection with the use of nominating committees, namely that it is better not to have had such a committee than to ignore its recommendations. Faculty members see through such *pro forma* procedures and are not at all flattered by their use.

IV

Although something has already been said and much implied on the subject, I should next like to turn to the problem of "communication." Given substantial faculty participation in administration, there will already be extensive communication between administrative officers and faculty, at least on some subjects. My reference here is to something over and above, or different from, this official exchange of ideas and information. One of the serious sources of trouble on a university campus is lack of information and understanding on the part of the faculty of the policies of administrative officers. Some administrative officers, though

surely not many, feel that these policies are none of the faculty's business. Even if the correctness of this attitude were legally and professionally demonstrable, insistence on it would be unwise. In some administrators this attitude develops by default: they are too busy; they simply do not think about it, and besides they have clear consciences.

What administrators sometimes forget is that a majority of faculty members rightly feel that they have a personal stake in educational policies. When they are not kept informed, they begin to guess and to imagine, and to listen to two kinds of trouble-makers who are present on almost every campus—the type who disseminates allegedly reliable information obtained from a confidential source; and the congenital anti-administrationist who offers discreditable interpretations of any and all official actions. Granted that certain items of official information may disturb the faculty; still, if the information is accurate and complete, it will do far less harm than the miscellany of *misinformation* by which it is otherwise sure to be replaced. It is of course true that there are problems that, for one reason or another, are better not discussed on the campus. Generally speaking, however, the choice that has to be made is not between ignorance and information but between misinformation and reliable knowledge.

There is no space here for detailed discussion, but I should like to use one example, again taken from the sensitive area of salaries. Some administrators honestly believe that if they do not publish their salary budgets, each faculty member will know little more than the amount of his own salary. This could not be true even if all members of the faculty were bachelors. The general cause of the trouble in this area is that many faculty members feel that they are entitled to have this information and that, when it is refused, the administration has some discreditable reason for suppressing it. As a result, accurate knowledge is once again replaced by rumor and gossip. It must not be forgotten that it is a natural tendency of some faculty members to believe that the administration always has a lot of money in reserve which it is simply unwilling to spend. This is the background for much misunderstanding of financial policies.

How can necessary and advisable communication be effected? In a small college obviously through the medium of the faculty meeting. In large universities some form of representative body such as a senate or council is necessary. Regular communication between the administration and the faculty at large can then be channeled through the faculty representatives on this body. It is interesting to note that once regular

media are established the demand for communication decreases. A sure way of making faculty meetings unpopular is to call a lot of them. I know of one case in which, a university senate having been established at the request of the faculty, there next came pressure to open the meetings of the senate to any member of the faculty who wished to attend. This was done—and the response was practically zero.

Regular communication is obviously necessary to the maintenance of good relations between the dean and members of the faculty. Sometimes frank discussion between dean and faculty member is a painful experience for both. But the effects of such a discussion are not nearly as unpleasant or as long-lived as those of concealment and deviousness. Only a few experiences or reports of trickery are needed to breed in the faculty a permanent conviction of administrative untrustworthiness and from then on to jeopardize easy and effective relations.

Communication among members of the faculty is also essential. On every faculty there are of course individuals who are content to teach and do research, or merely to teach, and to leave the administration of everything in the institution to others. But a substantial number are likely to be interested in at least some phase of administration. Moreover all faculty members have to vote on many issues. Communication among them in faculty meetings is not likely to be either as extensive or as profitable as it should be. Faculty committees are essential not only because they assure advance study of problems but also because they give regular opportunity for exchange of ideas and for "talking things out" and reaching some measure of agreement. In large faculties it is often only on committees that some members of the faculty learn to know one another. Until they do, they, like other human beings, may have some strange ideas about their colleagues. One of the most valuable by-products of a university-wide self-study and planning program in which I recently took part was the extension of professional acquaintance and a resulting change in preconceived opinions. This led to substantial advancement in understanding and cooperation among the participants. Whatever other benefits may develop, this one alone will have made the project worthwhile. An administrative officer who participates in one of these super-committee projects will never have as good an opportunity to learn so much about so many in so short a time.

Finally, in connection with this matter of communication, I should like to take note of the fact that for members of the academic profession official activities occur in a social setting, as do those of other professions.

Now in one way members of a college or university community have much more personal contact than do the personnel of a large industrial corporation. That is doubtless why cabin fever is not uncommon on a university campus. (The greater incidence of the symptoms of this disease towards the end of the academic year used to be referred to by a colleague of mine as the "June Jitters.") It cannot be denied that life in a college or university is to some extent a confining and even narrowing life. It is in many cases made troublesome and difficult by financial pressures.

We professors also have a characteristic occupational approach to our professional problems which is a source of friction and conflict among us. A friend of mine who for many years was a member of the state legislature, where he did most effective "log-rolling" for the university, said to me one day: "You know, I don't understand university politics. In the legislature when a colleague wants me to vote for a bill in which he is interested he comes to me and tells me so and offers to support my bill in return. But professors always claim that they are for or against something *on principle*." Now it is true that professors firmly believe that they are acting on principle. They are engaged in improving the world, in making man better, and each of them believes that his particular subject is essential to this process. Any attempt to limit its advancement or to limit the exposure of students to it must be opposed on principle. When everybody feels this way, communication is likely to be a bit warm and not too productive. Two politicians can trade votes and two businessmen can strike a bargain. But professors should not be expected to compromise on principles. That would be unprincipled. Unfortunately people with strong principles are not as easy to get along with as opportunists and compromisers. When principles are in competition—or shall we say more politely, opposed—their respective proponents have considerable difficulty in getting along with one another. The only thing that will really bring them together is the need of circumventing some neutral, that is to say unprincipled, party like a dean or a president. Administrators obviously cannot afford principles, only policies.

All these difficulties are made worse by the relative independence and isolation in which professors pursue their professional activities. That is one reason why we are always trying to do something about integration of the curriculum. We know far too little about one another's subjects and this is a natural obstacle to understanding one another personally. For this reason it is important that there should be on the campus easy

and natural opportunities for contact and communication on a social basis. Social contacts, though they will not solve problems of professional and administrative communication, will create a more hospitable atmosphere for their solution. There is nothing like a faculty club to provide opportunity for such contacts. Here all members of the faculty, of all departments and divisions and social groups, can meet informally and at odd hours for talk and bridge and billiards and tea or coffee and come to know one another as they never can in faculty or committee meetings. Here they do not have to talk and act "on principle." Administrative officers ought also to go to the club, but with discretion. Every faculty club ought really to have a "scoffers' corner" which is safe from administrative intrusion and where members of the faculty can be free to talk about the president and the deans.

V

In conclusion I shall concern myself with some important qualifications of the foregoing generalizations. Useful as they are in the exact sciences, general concepts and principles are of very limited use in the area of human relations until their particular applications have been identified. Everybody believes in education, truth, liberty, democracy and freedom of speech. It is comparatively easy to obtain passage of resounding resolutions on these topics. Troubles arise and multiply when it comes time to apply general principles to specific situations, for it is on the applications that men disagree. The reason for this is that men, unlike machines, are not constructed and organized in accordance with principles; on the contrary, men make their own principles and apply them as they think or feel that they ought to be applied. It is the resultant variables that make administration difficult.

Educational administration might indeed be defined as the adjustment of policies to persons and conditions and situations which involve a variable number of variables. There are differences between the subject matters with which teaching and research are concerned, differences in numbers of individuals involved, differences in personalities and in educational ideas among them, unstable differences in public interest and attitudes towards education, variations in alumni attitudes and pressures, variations in financial resources, and differences among administrative officers in the same institution in their conception of rights and duties and techniques. In consequence of these variables, and others which could be identified, it is foolish to suppose that any categorical rules can be laid

down for the application of such general policies as have been discussed above.

Here are a few examples. The extent to which an administrative officer, say a president, makes use of the authority which he "legally" possesses will be determined in part by his own personality, in part by the characteristics and competencies of his staff, and in part by the degree of tolerance and submissiveness of his faculty. Faculties, and fractions and individual members of faculties, vary in attitude and behavior from complete indifference to administrative decisions to persistent demands to have a share in them. Few professors have any desire to share the responsibility of raising money from alumni or maneuvering appropriations through the legislature, though occasionally a professor has no objection to making this as sporting a proposition as possible. A united and friendly department can be trusted to make representative recommendations, but a disorganized and quarrelsome one is likely to produce the opposite result. An over-ambitious comptroller can disturb the whole area of relations between the faculty and the administration by assuming the right to determine what items of equipment a department needs or does not need. One professor can be jokingly reminded of some routine duty which he has overlooked; with another it is better to leave him to make the discovery for himself. One member of the faculty can be trusted expertly to chair a committee, whereas another is certain to permit, if not to induce, endless debate.

Add together all these variables and others not considered, distribute them over hundreds of individuals, assume them to be involved in a variety of situations, and you have enough permutations and combinations to keep an administrator occupied every day and many a sleepless night. Educational administration is not a science and never will be. The basic reason is of course that it is concerned with the direction of a human activity which is not itself a science, namely education. Moreover we are not dealing with perfect administrators or perfect professors. The fact is that we are all fallible and that underlying all this talk about plans and procedures is the primary and inescapable assumption that we have to learn to live with one another's shortcomings. The most serious cause of trouble is the individual faculty member who is convinced to begin with that every dean or president is *ex officio* cursed with more than his share or with some particularly inappropriate kinds of weaknesses. That is not to say that some administrators do not have the same kind of feeling towards members of the faculty. All that parties of both the first and the

second part can do is to adapt themselves as best they may to the personality factors and to the occupational weaknesses which are native to their respective positions in the academic family.

As for the administrator, let him not forget that the practice of educational administration is itself an educational experience. If in the course of this experience he has learned not to mistake his own dogmas for sound educational policies, and his own comfort for the welfare of the faculty; if he has learned that a reputation with faculty and students for integrity is in the long run quite as important as routine administrative efficiency, and certainly more rewarding; if he has learned that in the use of democratic procedures the gain in faculty morale and cooperativeness usually offsets the loss in time and efficiency; if he has learned when to talk and when to keep silent, when to write a letter and when not to do so; if he has learned that the frank and prompt acknowledgment of mistakes disarms and frustrates critics, and eases his own conscience; if he has learned to bear the role of academic scapegoat with serenity; if he has learned cheerfully to accept the occupational risks of his job as the price of his glory; if above all he has learned to see his administrative functions in the perspective of their ultimate purpose, namely to create the most favorable conditions possible for education; if he has learned all these things and many more—then, over the long haul, he will have attained as good a measure of success as can be expected in the most complex and difficult of all human enterprises—participation in the direction of man's efforts to improve himself.

To be sure, it is not likely that any administrator will have all of these good qualities in sufficient quantity. Much will be gained if he discovers this for himself. If he does not, he can be sure that his attention will be called to it. For a president or dean does not, like the returning Roman conqueror, need a special official to stand behind him and whisper in his ear: "Remember thou art but human." That role will be effectively played by the faculty. Ultimately his shortcomings will doubtless be recorded by a scholar among them in a history of his institution. His career may even be summarized on his tombstone. If this should occur, and the deceased happens to be a dean, I could suggest a suitable epitaph:

Here lies Dean So and So.

He never had enough of anything.

Education for Excellence: Its Nature and Cost

J. DOUGLAS BROWN

*The case for "education in creativity"—to which
the usual rules of cost accounting do not apply*

A great deal of the confusion which affects the determination of educational policy in America arises from a failure to distinguish two basic approaches to education. This failure becomes acutely significant when, aroused by pressures from without and within, we concentrate our efforts on education for excellence, whether in school, college or university. These two basic approaches are: education in *conformity* and education in *creativity*. They appear at all levels of the educational process, with heavy emphasis on conformity in school and early college, shifting at least for high talent to heavy emphasis on creativity in the later years of college and in professional education. Failure to distinguish between these two approaches would be a serious handicap in assuring our country the flow of high talent it so sorely needs. Failure to distinguish the relative costs in teaching talent and money of these two approaches to education would prove short-sighted and frustrating.

In elementary and secondary education there is a large proportion of education in conformity. Reading, writing and arithmetic, as tools for life, are training in standardized procedures. But as higher, liberal education is reached, the student moves by gradual stages into education to encourage creativity and the fulfillment of the individual rather than to encourage conformity in work habits or ideas.

Even at the level of higher education there is a wide range in the degree of emphasis upon creativity as opposed to conformity. The more elementary level of any program of study requires the student to know the standard terms vocabulary, grammar, procedures and data of the subject. But as a student moves from language to literature, from method to discovery, from fact to personal evaluation, the growing mind needs creative exercise and to test out one's own ideas through interaction with

the ideas of others. This is where higher education becomes an individualized process and where evidence of conformity to the authoritative word of the lecturer or the textbook falls short of evidence that one is truly educated.

Education in conformity constitutes a large and valuable segment in the total American system. At the college level it produces large numbers of young people who know the skills of language, mathematics, engineering and science and have a background of knowledge of accepted facts and judgments in the social sciences and the humanities. But such education alone does not provide the leadership for advancing the whole frontier of civilization whether in human organization and relations or in scientific discovery. Such leadership requires education in creativity.

Education in conformity has a practical advantage over education in creativity. Because it seeks conformity it can be more easily standardized. Therefore it can use the techniques of multiplication of the effectiveness of the teacher through the subdivision of labor. It has some of the elements of mass production. Examples of such techniques are the lecture-quizz-examination formula so widely used today. The standard text and the objective test are the attributes of education in conformity.

Education in creativity, on the other hand, must go far beyond these techniques. It must relate itself to that most unstandardized unit, the individual student, and his reaction to the educational process. It must bring the mature teacher into close relation with an inquiring mind in order to give individual guidance and criticism in programs of study which do not conform to any standard pattern. The methods used in education for creativity include small discussion groups, individual consultation, wide and varied readings, independent investigation, essays, theses, evaluation based on close observation, and examinations which weigh analysis rather than conformity. Most of all, education in creativity requires the creative teacher not on the lecture platform alone but in close and frequent contact with the individual student.

With these differences in the conditions surrounding the two approaches to education, it is clear that education for creativity is a far more expensive process than education for conformity. In the former, the ratio of teacher to student at the higher levels might be one to six: in the latter, one to fifteen or twenty. It is also true that the composition of a faculty can be adjusted to the kind of education sought. In education for creativity a far larger proportion of mature teachers is required since

the range and depth of the teacher should be sufficient to permit free-ranging inquiry and discussion. In education for conformity, a limited number of mature lecturers can be assisted by a much larger number of less mature section leaders, quiz-masters and examination readers. In the latter approach the head of the course lays out the material to be learned. In the former each teacher, interacting with each student, adjusts the process of instruction to the potentialities of those taught. This flexibility in the instructional process is effective only where teachers have a considerable command of their subjects and have experience in teaching.

A heavy cost in assuring an adequate staff of creative teachers in an institution which emphasizes the creative approach to education is the need to afford teachers sustained opportunities for scholarship and research. The teacher-scholar needs not only sufficient time to carry on his own studies along with teaching but an occasional break in the academic momentum in order to recharge his batteries. An environment of creativity is enhanced by the existence of organized projects of scholarship and research on a campus so that group activity and discussion supplement individual study. The time properly allowed for faculty research in a university today, as compared to that assigned to undergraduate and graduate teaching, might well average twenty per cent for the faculty as a whole, year by year. A university which strongly emphasizes creative teaching should assume a relatively larger allowance than other institutions since a much larger proportion of its faculty should be teacher-scholars and not junior personnel assisting in large, standardized courses.

With these conditions required for effective teaching at the creative level, the test of efficiency in an institution which strives for such teaching cannot be measured in time-clock terms. Such an institution must be man-centered in its economic analysis of costs and values. How much faculty and faculty time must it provide, not only to do week-by-week teaching but to afford sufficient time for scholarship and research to raise and sustain the creative quality of its faculty? This decision is affected by an institution's sense of obligation to advance knowledge, not alone in the great middle-of-the-road areas of scholarship, such as history and English, but in the outer edges of knowledge in astrophysics or archaeology. It is a fortunate attribute of creativity that it is not easily channeled by authority. A creative scholar needs freedom to pursue truth where he may find it. To control the area of scholarship of a faculty member, once appointed, is both fruitless and unwise. The test of

efficiency is the presence of an effective teacher-scholar, not the precise quantity of teaching done in a predetermined specialty.

An institution emphasizing the creative approach to teaching must also be man-centered in its choice of methods of instruction. It cannot, for the sake of apparent efficiency, use the lecture-quiz method in a subject where small group discussion is distinctly preferable. Its methods must be related to the long-run effect upon the student, the stimulation of his individual potentialities of growth. The growth here sought cannot be measured by examinations alone but by the total effect of the educational process upon the student as a potential contributor to society over a life career.

We have come to the nub of the problem of determining effectiveness in education for excellence. The process should enhance both student and teacher as individuals. How well does a particular method accomplish this result? How much in capitalized dollars is an education worth in terms of the expenditure in salaries and plant? The conclusion one comes to is that there is no possible means of measuring the value of the "product" of creative education. There is therefore no precise means of determining efficiency by relating cost to "product." Rather the determination of investment, step by step, in the development of faculty and the development of teaching method and curriculum must be based on the seasoned judgment of the educator, within the limits of the funds available and the willingness of students and their parents to contribute their share of cost.

It is most certainly true that sound judgment on the part of the educator will be focused on such problems as the optimum number of subjects offered, the number of courses, the minimum size of course, the minimum qualifications of students to be eligible for entrance to college or for more expensive programs, such as those for "independent" work. But sound judgment *within* any institution will not be susceptible to audit by some external standard ratio of students to teachers, nor of dollars per student taught. The determination of the cost of educating a creative leader in law, medicine, science, government, business or community service is rather an act of faith; faith in the potentialities of the students taught and in the wisdom of the institutions who teach them. The determination of the product of education in creativity must lie in the judgment of this world and the next, whether men of excellence of mind and spirit have been empowered to fulfill their potentialities for good.

The Foreign Student on the American Catholic Campus

EDWARD J. BERBUSSE

Since the visitor's spiritual guidance is of as much concern as his intellectual and social development, he must be handled with an extra measure of tact and understanding

When foreign students are accepted into Catholic schools in the United States, there is a simultaneous exchange of rights and obligations. While the student is accepting the academic and disciplinary requirements of the school, he is presuming that his right to preserve a different culture and loyalty will be respected. He has come with no intention of shedding that which is most intimate to him, that which he intends to be an essential part of his personal and public life. The school at the same time expects that the student will live up to the spirit of the requirements—both academic and disciplinary—which have been incorporated into its catalogue. It hopes that its philosophy of education will be respected; that the foreign student will be better as a person for having lived within its non-ivied walls; that better relations will exist between the United States and his home country; that a more profound participation in the life of the Mystical Body of Christ will result both for the Catholic institution and for the student. This mutual exchange of rights and duties, though often perfunctorily recognized, is of no slight consequence. It creates the opportunities of much good, while bearing the premonition of misunderstanding and conflict. I believe that we can profitably discuss first the problems of the foreign student who comes to the American Catholic campus, secondly the role of the school in educating him and lastly the mutual building of better international relations.

Attitudes of the Foreign Student

In accepting a foreign student into a Catholic school, we are concerned about his attitudes, his philosophy of life. As Chesterton says in *Heretics*,

"We think that for a landlady considering a lodger it is important to know his income, but still more important to know his philosophy." We might well add that it is not only necessary to know his rational, but also his irrational attitudes, for these prejudices will often motivate him as strongly as his reasoned philosophy. If he is from Europe, he may very well hold as a dogma that university work in Europe is superior to the United States product, and so tend to adjust himself with reluctance. While we try unreflectively to pour him into our American mold, he may be preoccupied with the thought of our limitations. If he is a Freedom-Fighter from Hungary, he may well resent the complacent attitude of many Americans toward the impending catastrophe of communism; he may have short patience with the "intellectuals" who favor a co-existence with the hope that communism will gradually evolve into democracy. As a Latin American he may have a long memory of the history of economic exploitation of those countries by the United States, which he labels the "Colossus of the North." If he comes from one of the new nations of Asia or Africa, he will identify the United States with the 19th century imperialism of the powers of the West and, in his expression of exaggerated nationalism, have little sympathy with the ideal of an interdependent world.

In the matter of the Catholic faith, there is much diversity of attitude among foreign students. The non-Catholic almost never resents and generally admires the faith and practice of Catholicism. Religion on the Catholic campus is an advantage for him, though it may never affect him much beyond the point of admiration and of conditioning his morality. Among foreign Catholic students there are all shades of opinion and practice. The anti-clerical looks on the priest or religious with the suspicion that he will be authoritarian, and regards it as unmanly to be found frequently at the communion rail. Then there is the pious Catholic who finds his religion a purely personal matter and cannot comprehend its application to such market-place realities as social justice. There is the lad who comes from a social environment where the male begins his pre-marital experiences at the age of fifteen and who regards as normal the continuance of this form of "virility" upon arrival in the United States. He is in sharp contrast to the boy who has the world of social and economic conflict deep in his mind, who is zealous to assist in the alleviation of the suffering of the poor and misled, who is motivated by the ideals of the Mystical Body. Then there is the boy who lives in the confused world of so many of our American boys: the complexity of belief in God

with reluctance to make the sacrifices necessary for the fulfilment of this belief.

It is important to remember that the great majority of these foreign boys come from wealthy families; that their mores have been set by many centuries of attitudes and behavior; that often the Church has but touched the veneer of their lives. And so their belief in God has been so deeply buried under the pleasures of life that only with difficulty can it have a vital effect upon their daily living. They are at best a static expression of Christian ideals that have almost died within them. We often wish that we could have contact in our schools with the poor of foreign countries, under the belief that the "witchery of trifles" would not leave them so passive before the great Christian realities. But this may very well be a velleity in the face of our incompetence to inspire change of attitude in the boys that we seek to educate.

Intimately related to this thin realization of Christian ideals is the foreign student's attitude on social, economic and political questions. Because of lack of spiritual depth, he may accept his class advantages as a matter of divine election and never admit an intrinsic relation of obligation between himself and the starving masses that surround him. He may exhaust himself with the pleasures of his class during the summer months and never turn a thought to self-denial in the interest of those who do not have bread. He is often so blind to the realities that he cannot see that communism is building strongly on a foundation of his weaknesses. The caste system has made him regard his wealth as an absolute right. And while he is strong in criticism of the United States, which has garnered much of the world's wealth in the competition of the world market, he forgets that he is living in his own microcosmic world of self-interest at the expense of his neighbor.

In his social attitudes the foreign student may be quick to criticize the tardiness of the United States to right such evils as racial segregation. He has been indoctrinated to reprove the racialism of Anglo-Saxon peoples, while forgetting his own class discrimination which derives from cultural or economic differences. He judges erroneously that all these evils of the United States could be changed quickly, forgetting that legal changes must come from representative political institutions, which are often slow in their procedures. It is hard for the foreign student to realize that legal attempts to change the customs of prejudice are often filibustered into failure. It would be so much easier to force change by the use of

dictatorial power—but he forgets that the benefits of our representative ways may be lost in such appeals to emergency powers.

These are but a few of the diverse and complex attitudes that characterize the foreign student upon his arrival on the Catholic campus. They are attitudes that may well poison his years of residence in our country. He may revolt against the conventions, explode his indignation before all and so win bitter retaliation; or he may harbor his resentments in mind and heart, giving vent to his indignation in secret conferences with his fellow countrymen. In either case he will return home after his student years with bad memories, and though he will not become a communist, he will be one of communism's most effective—though unconscious—instruments. What has happened in his dealings with American students? Has he found a bond of friendship that will preserve him from hatred of a people who discriminate on the basis of race and color? Will the friendship of individual "Yankees" assuage his bitterness?

Foreign Student Meets United States Student

When the foreign student first meets the American on his home campus, the former is in serious need of *security*. He has severed the warm relations of his family ties, the security of his own cultural and national bonds. He looks for warmth and understanding in the midst of difference. He hopes that there will be some social life that will mitigate as basic a feeling as homesickness. He may have money to buy luxuries and pleasures but it will not provide friendships. Or he may be financially handicapped and have to discover outlets for his human needs in cultural, intellectual and social exchange with the American. For instance, in his religious experience he may have become accustomed to warm folk-expression of his Catholic belief. As he encounters a disturbing series of surprises in the habits of America, he will want to exchange evaluations of the cultural differences. In the field of intellectual life he has attitudes on world problems and has accustomed himself to see them partly through the eyes of his own country. In his theoretical and practical approaches to these problems he has visualized a role to be played by the United States. He would like to discuss these ideas with the American college student. He not only wishes to learn from his years in the United States but also to contribute to its betterment. While retaining a strong loyalty to home, he wants to adjust himself to and love his new environment. He will not tolerate being refashioned in an American

mold, but he is eager to receive new ideas and to participate in American life.

To meet this need in the foreign student, what is the first reaction of the American? Apart from a small number of really hospitable Americans, he finds the "surface-American" to be an excessive individualist who expresses himself in an indifferent manner towards the foreigner. The foreign student complains that a friendship given in a day can be as quickly forgotten. He finds the American too preoccupied with his social, athletic and personal life to make many enduring friendships; he rationalizes this as an expression of the competitive society whose components contend for pre-eminence at the expense of their neighbors. What appears at the beginning to be friendship is soon discarded with disillusion by the foreigner as mere temporary convenience, another expression of the soulless philosophy of pragmatism. There is no spiritual bond, for the usefulness of things—even of friendship—is the ultimate norm of their permanence. I am not at all convinced that this is a valid rationale of the American, but I am aware that he may easily give this impression to the foreigner. Difference of interest, impatience with language difficulties, confidence in himself and his own national superiority, suspicion of that which is foreign—all of these may engender a nativist attitude that seeks to avoid contact with the foreign student. It never seems to occur to the American student that he is a host and bound by the law of hospitality towards those who come to his country, most especially those who come to his campus.

Of even more disastrous result is the racial discrimination that is experienced by the student from Africa or the Far East. Though he is not excluded from intellectual or extracurricular activities of the campus, he quickly senses a social barrier. Imagine for a moment the discussions that surround a dance in which the school authorities or the student organizers try to protect a Negro student from the effects of racial prejudice. Even those who are friendly among the students make him conscious that he is an object of contrived charity. And all the time the boy is hoping that he will be treated as an ordinary member of the human family who has his loves and fears, his interests and cultural traits.

Another area in which the foreign student reacts to the American is that of intellectual and social interests. The European student is almost always concerned with ideas and seeks to engage his American fellow in an exchange, only to find that parties and sports occupy most of his counterpart's non-academic hours. The Latin American student often

criticizes the American as immature because he displays a lack of subtlety in his direct manner of dealing with his companions. The much more complex manner of the Latin American *vivo*—one who wins every possible advantage through clever dealing—makes him admire only those who display equal subtlety. The American in his directness is blunt and considers it dishonest or a waste of time to engage in diplomatic parrying. For the Asian, with his centuries of refinement and his formal expression of esteem for his friend, the American seems too brusque and rude. And for the African, with his great warmth of personal expression, the American appears too cold and often suggests to his sensitivity another expression of prejudice.

It becomes immediately clear that the foreign student adviser has the twofold task of making the American student intelligible to the foreign student and of revealing to the visitor that he must accept the American as he is. This will mean a building of friendship on the basis of the best that is in the American. It requires a good measure of self-knowledge in which the foreigner must see that he may have built up a hypersensitivity on the foundation of evaluating an American by norms that are quite alien to the American cultural pattern.

The Catholic School Aids the Foreign Student

If a Catholic school defines education as the full and harmonious development of the intellectual, artistic and moral faculties of the student through his own initiative, with faculty guidance and under divine grace, then it has a special problem in applying its ideal to the foreign student. Certain attitudes on religion, culture, economics and social life which may be basic to American society may not receive such ready acceptance by the foreign student.

Because of a variety of religious experiences, the foreign student may not realize the contribution of religious education nor recognize the place of legitimate authority in regulating the public expression of his personal morality. Here the foreign student adviser has a vital role—that of bridging the gap between student and school ideals—and this is best accomplished in personal conference. To omit this responsibility is to leave ourselves open to the criticism levelled by Carroll Newsom against the public schools of the United States, that the nation's religious heritage is being ignored. Essential to our Catholic educational ideal is the integrating influence of religious teaching and practice, and in this we are loyally continuing the true American tradition.

In our instruction we must make a special effort to acquaint the foreign student with our American political philosophy which expresses the balanced relationship between legitimate authority and human freedoms. Through political science we strive to show the dynamic evolution of institutional life to meet community needs, the balance realized between diverse interests on the basis of principled compromise. In treating of international relations we propose the ideal of a world society based on the interdependence of peoples rather than on exaggerated nationalism. Such consciousness of our fellow man in all sectors of the world forces us to consider his economic problems and urges us to educate youth in penance, charity and social justice—the values which Pope John XXIII finds “detach us from riches and . . . teach us to divide them with those who are poorer than we.” Some form of redistribution must meet what is a scandalous disparity between well-being and want in this world. And so the labor encyclicals become an essential in the educational curriculum of our schools. One Latin American student spoke warmly to me of the impact of a Catholic business school in which the courses in theology, sociology, ethics and labor economics were geared to a Catholic conception of social justice. The student found that his whole mental attitude had been changed from the static concepts of laissez-faire capitalism espoused by his parents and his social set.

Historical studies of world areas shed further light upon the true causes for their underdevelopment in political, economic and social institutions, and so prevent prejudiced criticism based on spurious reasoning. This arouses sympathy in the American student for the plight of the foreign student's country. At the same time it corrects faulty attitudes of foreign students who can often be dogmatic on what the United States really is. This was well expressed in a recent talk that a Chilean professor gave to a group of United States students enroute to Chile for studies. He said: “The Chilean university students will tell you many things about the United States that you don't know. In fact, though you're sure that the statements aren't true, they'll strive to convert you to their acceptance. In fact, they'll contend that you are covering up for the United States.” He concluded: “You have a job on your hands. So be patient, because even if they're misinformed, they will be most hospitable.” A last area of studies is that of inter-racial justice. Here the school's goal is to promote class understanding and cooperation and to make for harmonious living in the midst of racial differences.

Important as the academic program of the school is, it cannot en-

compass the full mental activity of the foreign student. His most basic prejudices are often formed in the area of extracurricular living. Here I believe the foreign student is in need of two types of activities: the *cultural-bond* activity and the *foreign-integrating* activity. The former is geared to making the student feel at home in what seems at first a completely alien environment; the latter is intended to draw the student gradually into campus life and to have him participate in activities that are usual to the American student. The foreign student adviser organizes the more numerous homogeneous groups into cultural-bond units so that they may enjoy recreation and feel at home on the campus. To keep this from becoming a segregating activity, a faculty member who is sympathetic to cultural integration is needed. After the boys feel that they are respected and have a place, the adviser urges them to present programs that will reveal the culture of their homelands to the American student. His next step is to advance integration by activities that bring different groups of foreign students and American students into social and cultural exchange. The international club is one of the best instruments to this end, since it attempts to combine the sympathetic exchange of ideas with sociability. Round-tables and socials are the best clearing-houses of ideas and lead to mutual understanding. From the international club, the foreign student is led to membership in the glee club, sodality, dramatics, intra-mural athletics and publications, along with other intra-school and inter-school activities. The segregated activity was a beginning that produced an integrating result.

Another procedure, which to my knowledge is not developed at any school, is an indoctrination program on foreign countries. By this I mean a serious attempt by each faculty member to acquaint himself with the problems of the foreign student and his country, in order that the professor's teaching may arouse sympathy and prevent prejudice among the American students. Dr. Charles Malik of Lebanon, President of the General Assembly of the United Nations, stresses the need for the West to recognize the place of Asia and Africa in the modern world. In a recent statement he urged that:

To confine America's meaning to Asia and Africa only to the military, the political and the economic is not only to fail to perceive the real issue of Asia and Africa, but to do grievous injustice to the wonderful spiritual riches with which this country is blessed . . .

It is easy to give money and it is easy to grant independence, but the competition for the soul and mind of Asia and Africa is infinitely more crucial and

more demanding than any other competition, and he who for any reason abdicates before this challenge does not know that he is failing not only Asia and Africa but his own (American) culture with its infinite spiritual riches.

If American teachers would instill these living ideals into the minds of our American students, they must first possess them within themselves. I am not so sure that all American professors have achieved this realization.

It is my further conviction that such non-academic parts of the American community as industry and labor have a vital role to play in welcoming the foreign student to our country. Industry is eager to create optimum conditions for its products in foreign markets; in the foreign student they have potential good-will messengers. Assistance to foreign students could generate much good will and good business. When countries with low dollar reserves limit a student's money export when scholarship funds are thin and exchange rates prohibitive, industry could give aid. Labor unions, whose membership is in good part drawn from rather recent immigrant families, could share in this foreign student interest and, while aiding the needy student, advance the cause of international trade unionism. This would have the additional benefit of counteracting the very effective communist propaganda.

I am also convinced that parish and diocesan agencies might also contribute to the foreign student's integration into American life. This guest student might be invited to social and intellectual activities run by the parish, or asked to participate in diocesan programs that strive for world understanding. At the same time the student could be asked to assist in the religious education of the foreign elements in the parish. It is clear that much could be done by Spanish-speaking students in areas where the migratory labor classes live in isolation because of their lack of English. The knowledge and skills of the Catholic college boy could be used to explain Catholic life, cooperative buying and selling, credit unions, legal procedures, housing protection and American ways in general to those who are seriously exploited.

Community and campus should combine their facilities to aid the foreign student and so assure his return to his homeland with pleasant memories of his stay in the United States. Some of the factors that should be incorporated in these memories are the following:

First: good admission policies at the school. This means a prompt and accurate evaluation of his academic transcript, and it presumes an honest testing of his ability in English. If he needs intensive study in English before

admission to the United States school, then Catholic centers should be established to this end.

Second: a good body of principles that have become integrated in his thinking and expressed in his actions. This is also related to an emotional balance in his personality.

Third: a life that is intelligently and practically Catholic; that is concerned with the spiritual and material needs of one's neighbor; that seeks to lead others in accordance with these ideals of Christianity and social justice.

Fourth: a body of knowledge that prepares one for the economic, social, political and religious needs of life; a set of skills in the particular field of study.

Fifth: an assistance in job-getting at home, upon completion of studies in the United States.

Lastly: personal friendships with members of the faculty, the student body and the community will be most important aspects in the "good memory" of the foreign student.

If these few principles are held in mind and practiced, one is able to predict that foreign students will return to their own country with a warm feeling toward the United States and a desire to improve relations between the two countries. The foreign student's years on the American Catholic campus will have made a contribution to his personal development, to the well-being of his own country and to better understanding for the United States in its international relations.

No Visitors Allowed?

PAUL H. DAVIS

Is a teacher's classroom his castle, or should he encourage visits by administrators and colleagues? The writer argues for an open-door policy

Traditions give a society desirable stability but each tradition should be re-examined occasionally to make certain that it remains as useful as it is hallowed.

One college tradition prohibits "outsiders" in classrooms. A tradition-bound professor explains: "My classroom is my castle, my sanctum inviolate." What would he do in the event of a visit by the dean or president? "I would pick up my hat, tell him to teach the class—and walk out." The tradition, he contends, is an important protection of academic freedom and of each professor's right to teach his classes in his own way.

On the other hand, when I made an informal inquiry among teachers at the University of Wisconsin, I found that only a small minority (although a very articulate one) insisted on a "no visitors" policy. At any rate we may conclude that the tradition should be examined.

Professor Rendel Harris, when asked to describe the secret of the powerfully stimulating life at Johns Hopkins before the turn of the century, said succinctly: "We attended each other's classes." Our military academies, like the graduate training schools of some great corporations, have the policy of visiting classes; the practice thrives in our elementary and secondary schools. As one of the relatively few persons ever privileged to visit classes on many campuses throughout the country I have some pertinent experiences to report.

All of my adult life I have been in and about colleges and universities, large and small, East and West, as a student, briefly as a teacher and principally as an administrator for public relations, fund raising and consulting. Only during the past two years, representing a client, *The Reader's Digest*, have I been privileged to visit classes other than my own. The editors of the *Digest*, anxious to know more about our colleges and universities, commissioned me to gather background information. In

that capacity I have received classroom visiting privileges from presidents, deans of faculty and professors. Not one denied my request and usually I was warmly welcomed.

First, here are examples of some visits which would inspire any person or teacher privileged to share my visiting experiences.

At Columbia College in New York I sat in on a thrilling lecture on Thomas Jefferson. Students sat in rapturous attention, taking occasional notes but primarily focusing their minds on the ideas of the teacher. The lecture carried us back to Colonial Virginia: we were guests at Monticello for an hour's informal visit with a tall, red-headed host. So stimulating and inspiring was that lecture that I am certain most of the students afterwards eagerly went from classroom to library to find more on Jefferson. I did.

At Knox College I visited a class in business administration. The teacher, with a deft combination of lecture, discussion and case method, kept his 28 students on the edge of their chairs every moment of their hour with him. Although his subject certainly was professional or instrumental, in that class he taught psychology, sociology, economics, mathematics and English—in addition to business administration. The lively discussion precluded the diligent note-taking which so often characterizes classrooms. Obviously stimulated, the students were reluctant to leave when the closing bell rang.

At Macalester, a college which won favorable mention in the Philip Jacob study¹ of changing student values, I attended a freshman class in economics—the subject sometimes termed by students “the dismal science.” I watched with special interest—and benefit—the professor's method. Disdaining to lecture from books or in any sense to reproduce the text, he instead illustrated economic principles from current affairs.

At Earlham I sat in a class which heard a visitor from the American Telephone and Telegraph Company present a resumé of that corporation's experiences in the development of its employees. He discussed the company's failures and its efforts to diagnose them, its successes and its speculation on their causes. He used visual aids, permitted discussion and encouraged questions. He gave each of the students a fresh understanding of the American corporate system. He might well have titled his lecture “Christian Principles in Business” or just “Ethics”.

An Earlham professor, asked the place of such a lecture in a liberal arts college, replied: “In a liberal education it is the atmosphere, the attitudes and the skill of the teacher which determine whether or not a course

should be in a liberal arts curriculum. Almost any subject can be taught in a liberal manner. Conversely, any liberal subject can be taught in a manner that is not liberal."

Now some examples of less happy visits—where the teachers obviously needed to see and hear good teaching.

At a western college a dean told me with firm conviction: "We have no reproducing of texts." Then I visited a class in ancient history. The professor, a distinguished scholar, lectured the entire hour, shutting off discussion. The only question from students was a meek "Will you please repeat that last sentence?" The professor's intensity implied belief that if he could only cram enough factual odds-and-ends into these students, then in some magical manner they would be educated. Facts in a sufficiently stiff dose, his manner suggested, would be transmuted into knowledge, so that Man Thinking would emerge. The students took notes continuously; pauses occurred only when the teacher consulted his watch. A student, questioned later about why he took notes when the lecture material must be in the text, said: "For the tip-off on what the prof will ask in examinations." Commenting later on the note-taking, the professor snorted: "If I sneeze, they will put it in the notes."

In a university class in Christianity, I heard a lecture on a chapter of the Old Testament. I found the review of King David's life an interesting hour but the discussion and questions were quite superficial and I saw little evidence that the students were attaining "an experience in depth and breadth" which the president had described.

The same was true of a sociology class in family life, at an eastern municipal college, where I heard a professor refer to dating as an American phenomenon useful for mutual exploration and describe courtship and engagement in detail. Interesting enough—but I found the identical information in his reference texts.

At a western college, I attended a required senior course in philosophy. The professor holds a doctorate from one of America's distinguished universities. An earnest, pleasant and dedicated man, he read from a book for one third of the class hour, while about half of his students took notes. Then, fighting a high level of obvious boredom, he endeavored to explain what he had read. Some questions disclosed that the questioners, at least, did not have the slightest understanding of the lecture. But most of the class merely sat daydreaming or whispering and joking, much to the professor's annoyance. Afterwards I asked one of the daydreamers how he expected to pass. "Just before finals I'll get that book he was reading and feed the stuff back to him."

Some educators are beginning to wonder if what happens in such classrooms is the key to the problem of attrition. Is there perhaps a relation between the substantial number of students who drop out between matriculation and graduation, and the stultifying hours they spend in too many lecture halls? Notable studies on attrition are being made by the United States Air Force Academy, where every administrator has a report and a chart showing the attrition rate of each class for each semester and also twelve categories of apparent reasons for drop-outs. Most frequently shown is lack of motivation.

About this problem of lack of motivation, the Chairman of Education Policy of a distinguished eastern college said to me:

The classroom is key to both the so-called lack of motivation and the attrition rate. We pay too little attention to what takes place there. We talk *at* the students hour after hour, day after day, on subject after subject. How many adults could listen to two to four lectures each day for five successive days a week for eleven weeks? Students get so bored that they can't take it, and they quit. That's the cause of high attrition.

Many of the classes I have attended appear to be a long way from the liberal arts ideal of "awakening and developing the intellectual and spiritual powers of each individual." A standard campus joke, applied to courses from theology to ROTC, is: "Tough course—tough to stay awake in."

Traditionally, few administrators visit classes; yet some have and others do. President Eliot of Harvard did. Dean Potter of Purdue did. Dean Carman of Columbia did. Professors in Project Reward at Rensselaer do. The dean of a University of Minnesota college does (with striking success). But in the main, visits at most colleges are so infrequent and unorthodox that it is likely that they disturb rather than aid the quality of the teaching. The tradition behind the "Do Not Disturb" sign on the door is strong.

The faculty of Colorado College recognized the gap between administrative ideals and actuality. And instead of just complaining about it they asked the dean, by unanimous resolution, to visit their classes regularly. The college chapter of AAUP approved the same resolution. At the nearby Air Force Academy the superintendent endeavors to visit one class each week and the dean of faculty visits several each week. Professors there both approve and applaud visits: "We are glad to have them visit. They give us helpful comments and suggestions."

At the graduate training school of one of America's large communications corporations, I found administrators regularly visiting classes.

("How else could we know what is going on?") At least twice a month the administrators huddle with the teachers to discuss how teaching can be improved. "We work together all the time to find ways of doing more effective teaching. Our students are here under full pay from the company, and we can't afford to waste a minute of their time." And the director added: "We frequently invite distinguished professors from the great universities to lecture to our classes and then three or four of us visit their classes to gather ideas and techniques."

That school has many forms of visual aids available—regular charts, flip charts, slides, demonstration gadgets, movies, and syllabi with sections colored for quick reference. In the English class is an ingenious device which has, front and rear, an array of knobs with various designs. Student A, on the front, must tell B, on the back, which knob to turn and how far. When B commits an error a red light flashes and a bell rings. The gadget quickly achieves its sole purpose—to convince each student that his ability to communicate accurately is inadequate, that further study in English will be useful.

This same classroom has acoustical ceiling, regulated ventilation (no windows), high soft lighting, long tables, cushioned chairs—every device to facilitate learning. It seems that having administrators visit classes can at least aid teachers in getting modern equipment.

Several college deans have said in substance: "The studies by Philip Jacob and others indicate what we already suspected, that the change of student values in a liberal arts college experience is often unsatisfactory." On the other hand, a college president exclaimed to me: "The Jacob study is trash." In any event, all agree on the teacher's key role in every educational institution. His place of maximum influence is the classroom, for here he has his longest contact with students. Surely those presidents, deans and departmental chairmen chosen for their qualities of educational leadership can do much to aid their teachers in effective teaching. Surely teachers, in visiting each other's classes, would gather helpful ideas.

One dean offered this suggestion:

Teachers are sensitive, dedicated people. They must be handled gently. If they aren't, they will get their backs up and will balk, fight and engage in vicious faculty politics. I don't visit classes. My system is that when I hire a new man, unless he is a full professor, I assign him for a semester to assist one of our best teachers. That way he has a half year of seeing and hearing good teaching.

Another device I use is annually to invite the honor students in for an evening and with them discuss the courses which they think are the best.

If I find that some professor is consistently omitted for favorable mention, then I have a talk with him and help him with his problem. Sometimes, not often, I have to help him move on.

Faculty cooperation is mighty important.

Possibly faculties, especially in the small colleges, should take the initiative and follow the example of Colorado College in inviting deans to visit classrooms. In larger institutions the invitations would go to department chairmen. Maybe later an invitation could be extended to the president. Apparently trustees are already welcome to visit, although one professor said: "I would welcome the visit of any one of our trustees to my classroom, but the surprise might be too much for me."

Commented one trustee who visited: "I don't know when I've enjoyed myself so much as the day I came over for a class lecture, a visit to the language laboratory and the convocation. There's nothing like getting to know what's going on right on the campus. When I came on the Board I was interested, you know, and wanted to help out—but nothing like the way I feel now."

In past years, when public esteem of American education was at an ebb and when appreciation of the importance of each and every college teacher was on the wane, the tradition of "no visiting" in classrooms may have provided a necessary protection, a safeguard for academic freedom. But today, when the importance of teachers is widely recognized, when our national existence may depend upon good teaching, the "no visiting" tradition may well be outmoded. Every teacher, no matter how excellent, can certainly learn something by observing other teachers. And many ineffectual teachers (including some who are brilliant scholars) may, by observing the methods of their colleagues, become good teachers. Surely the sharing of knowledge, techniques and methods is in accordance with the ideals of liberal arts. Surely the administrators should have the advantage of knowing at first hand what takes place in the most important rooms on their campuses—the classrooms. Surely the administrators, who are chosen for their educational statesmanship, would have suggestions of value. Surely college teachers can permit colleagues to visit with mutual respect and confidence. It is for the advancement of free men and the glory of God.

1. Philip E. Jacob, *Changing Values in College: An Exploratory Study of the Impact of College Teaching*, Harper & Brothers, 1957.

NOTE: An anonymous donor has provided copies of this article which will be sent on request to colleges and universities. Write to Association of American Colleges, 1818 R Street, N.W., Washington 9, D.C.

BOOKS

A President's Testament

Keeping the University Free and Growing
by Herman Lee Donovan, University of Kentucky Press,
Lexington, 1959, 162 pages, \$4.00

To keep a university free and growing requires a man of heroic mould. Such a man is Herman L. Donovan. For fifteen years, 1941-1956, he performed this service magnificently for the University of Kentucky.

For this strenuous presidency he had an ideal background. Just before assuming his task at Lexington he had for thirteen years been president of Eastern Kentucky State College. Previously he had been a country school teacher, a ward principal, a city school superintendent and a professor of education at George Peabody College for Teachers. A native of Kentucky, he is the product of its public schools, obtaining his college education at Western Kentucky State College and the University of Kentucky. He received his master's degree from Columbia University and his doctorate from Peabody.

Most college and university presidents publish annual reports which should be stimulating to trustees, alumni and other friends of the institution. They constitute also a record of the greatest value to future historians. Dr. Donovan did better: in order to foster understanding of the university's needs, the president's activities and the trustees' responsibilities, he presented written reports at each meeting of the board during his 28 years in the presidential office.

In fifteen interesting chapters the author outlines his problems and their solutions in the areas of finance, buildings, public relations, students, faculty, athletics and so forth. Pre-eminent among them, as would be naturally expected, is "financing the university program."

Dr. Donovan faced his "crisis extraordinary" in 1942, the second year of his administration. The Attorney General of Kentucky had ruled that the state constitution required the salaries of college officers and professors to be limited to \$5,000 per annum as for all other public officials of the state. Obviously the president would face immediately the loss of many of his better-equipped faculty and staff colleagues. The Keeneland Foundation came to his rescue by paying amounts needed in excess of \$5,000 to help him hold faculty members directing research projects. A distinguished alumnus and former federal judge

in Kentucky responded to the president's appeals to initiate gratis a lawsuit to repeal the salary ruling. This he accomplished in 1947, when the Kentucky Court of Appeals ruled that the sovereign power of the state was in the hands of the university's board of regents and that the officers and faculty simply carried out their policies and fulfilled the duties outlined by them. To confirm the court's action, the people of Kentucky voted in 1949 an appropriate amendment to the state constitution.

All college presidents are continually subject to pressures from many segments of society. The president of a state university is more likely than other presidents to receive cogent, voluble and volatile advice from business men, labor leaders and politicians. In addition he will frequently be advised by professors, students, physicians, preachers, farmers and women's clubs. Naturally President Donovan had his quota of self-appointed advisers. He states that his philosophy was to refuse "to be swayed by pressure alone, no matter how persistent it might be: a man who cannot withstand pressure has no business being a college president."

Early in his presidency, Dr. Donovan received a letter from a candidate for the governorship urging him to forbid the editors of the University Extension Bulletin to propagandize for the calling of a constitutional convention. In his reply he stated that he himself had already indicated his own support of the project before a convocation under the direction of the student government association. He added that if professors "are so negative in character as not to feel the desire to express their opinions about great social and moral issues, they would not be worth the salt that goes into their bread." He stated further: "So long as I am President of the University of Kentucky, I am going to protect the professors of this institution in their right of freedom of speech and academic freedom as generally recognized."

A few years later President Donovan had to wage a harder battle to protect his colleagues from another area of political pressure. In 1950 the General Assembly of Kentucky amended the statutes so that the governor and the state department of personnel would define positions and fix salaries in state colleges. Thus the board of regents would be deprived of their main function. Promptly the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the accrediting agency for the area, took action with the result that the standing of the university was in jeopardy. The American Association of University Professors sent a committee which made a careful study and issued a critical report, with appropriate recommendations. The press of the state, aided by many addresses made by the President, other officers and faculty, soon caused an aroused citizenry to demand the repeal of this hampering legislation. When the General Assembly met in 1952 it amended the law by unanimous vote, so that the right to fix salaries and appoint employees would be returned to the controlling boards of the state colleges and the state university.

In summing up his presidential record President Donovan pays eloquent tribute to the good teacher. He speaks feelingly of some who influenced his career, with nostalgic mention of his own teaching days. Gallantly he accords praise also to his colleagues in administration.

It was my privilege to work closely with him in a period of upheaval in the policies of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and thereby to recognize his educational statesmanship. We were fellow college presidents during the eleven years I was secretary-treasurer of the Southern Association.

Experienced presidents will be stimulated by perusal of this inspiring record. For new and embryonic presidents it should be "required reading."

GUY E. SNAVELY

Education for What?

The Adventure of Learning in College

by Roger H. Garrison, Harper and Brothers,

New York, 1959, 270 pages, \$3.25

Roger H. Garrison's *The Adventure of Learning in College* is a superior kind of college orientation book mainly because it has an adult point of view. It is not a guidance book, although undergraduates will find good advice in it. It is not devoted to techniques of study, although a reader soon sees that such techniques are necessary. It has little to say specifically about adjustment or social development, even though its contents recognize these as necessities for college learning.

There are no juvenile do's and don'ts, no mollicoddling, no pie in the sky. What the book says is that it is hard work and real adventure to bring order out of chaos, focus out of confusion, understanding out of opinions during the college years of learning. Young people breaking out of their cocoon who want to tackle the complex, rigorous and satisfying adventure of learning in college will find this a stimulating book.

Learning in college, says the author, may seem strange at first because the conditions and context are different from those of high school. It may be confusing because there is so much to see, hear, read, write, think about, experiment with and examine. It may be frustrating until ideas fall into place. Then, when persistence is rewarded with insight, satisfaction more than repays the effort.

These challenges are seen at work in Evelyn, a freshman, during her busy first days at college: roll call in classes; mimeographed bibliographies and

course outlines, reading lists, texts to buy; lectures studded with names, dates, ideas, movements, theories; questions of historical relevance and accuracy. The bell rings. "Wait a minute, please. . . . I haven't got it all down!" Evelyn must decide on how to use her time; when, where, and how to study; and, most important, where her values lie. That college is a place for adult decisions is a point amply made.

The book is made up of dozens of anecdotal situations, all short, realistic and maturely illustrative. These descriptions of college experiences are well written and conceived, enabling a student-reader to identify himself and his problems in the situations depicted.

The main test of a college orientation book is of course its usefulness to the student. A further test is its value to a larger audience. This book has something to say to college professors who, if they are honest, know that they need a fresh look at the world of youth as much as youth needs an honest view of the world of learning.

There is something here for parents too, for family relationships change during college years. Parents see their children shaping their futures in their own way. Youth looks upon the world through adult eyes. Personal roles are readjusted.

The author, who teaches literature at Briarcliff College and has written *A Creative Approach to Writing*, has practiced his pleasant style by doing professional work on *Life* and *Yank* magazines. He asks students flatly: education for what? His careful and wise answer, simply put, is: adventurous learning.

FRANKLIN PARKER

Bertha Tuma: a Memoir

GUY E. SNAVELY

On August 2, 1959 Bertha Tuma succumbed to cancer of the lungs at Champaign, Illinois, the home of her younger daughter, Mrs. Edith England. She had been seriously ill and away from her official duties less than three months.

Mrs. Tuma served the Association of American Colleges for more than thirty years. She worked for some eight years with its first executive officer, Robert L. Kelly, five years with our present executive director and seventeen years with the writer.

Her duties were many and varied. For most of the time she was concerned principally with the Association's financial business. Later she became more active in the management of the Bulletin. For the last few months she held the post of Administrative Secretary of the Association. In all her work she aimed scrupulously at exactness.

Many of the presidents of our member institutions came to look upon her as a friend. She was a cheerful greeter, frequently acting as hostess if the executive director happened to be out of the office when official visitors called. Often was I asked about her by presidential colleagues when I was attending regional conferences or visiting member colleges.

Mrs. Tuma had the gift of finding happiness in the struggle with life's problems. She was one of the youngest of a large family whose parents came from Czechoslovakia and settled in New York City's East Side. Her mother died when she was quite young and she was raised by her father who never learned to speak English. As soon as she was able she helped manage the household. Later, she had to earn her own living and support a home that contained a spinster aunt and two growing daughters. She contrived to send her daughters to Hunter College and saw them both happily married.

At the Annual Meeting of the Association in Kansas City last January, Mrs. Tuma was given an ovation in recognition of thirty years of continuous and loyal service to the Association. She was looking forward with keen anticipation to further service and a comfortable retirement.

Her many friends within and without her official circles mourn her untimely passing.

Editorial Notes

IN THIS ISSUE of *Liberal Education* you will find a blank where the name of the Associate Editor should appear. It symbolizes a tragic and unexpected loss. Elsewhere the Executive Director Emeritus pays tribute to the services rendered the Association of American Colleges over the space of thirty years by Bertha Tuma. They were many and great, but we shall remember especially the work she did for this journal. Not only did she take full responsibility for the business affairs of the Bulletin, but she faithfully transmitted its traditions to a new and wholly inexperienced editor and initiated him into the mysteries of editorial procedure. When he wilfully insisted in changing the outward form of the Bulletin in every respect but size, she overcame the conservatism of ingrained habit and threw herself into the project with incredible energy and elasticity of mind. Her last working day—when she was already a very sick woman—was spent in vigorous discussion with the printer. We mourn a devoted colleague and beloved friend, but *Liberal Education* is her memorial.

FROM the Institute of International Education come new statistics showing that in the realm of educational exchanges the United States continues to import considerably more than it exports. According to the institute's pamphlet "Open Doors 1959," 47,245 foreign students studied at this country's colleges and universities last year, whereas only 10,213 Americans attended institutions abroad during 1957-58 (the latest year for which the institute was able to obtain figures). The number of foreign students over here is up 13,000 from 1955, while that of Americans overseas is down 2,600 from 1956-57. As one might expect, the imbalance of trade in faculty was not nearly so pronounced. There were 1,937 foreign teachers and scholars at American colleges and universities last year (as against only 635 in 1955); at the same time, 1,842 Americans were on teaching or research assignments in 82 foreign countries. Other interesting facts brought to light by the institute's study: Eighteen American institutions had more than 400 foreign students last year—the leaders, not

surprisingly, being the University of California (1,693), New York University (1,670), Columbia (1,380), the University of Michigan (1,139) and the University of Minnesota (1,136). The Massachusetts Institute of Technology, with 762, had by far the highest proportion of foreign students on its campus—12.2 per cent of the total enrolment. Of the total of 47,245 visiting students last year, 5,512 came from North America, 10,249 from Latin America, 6,601 from Europe, 6,619 from the Near and Middle East, 1,735 from Africa, 15,823 from the Far East and 612 from Oceania. Their leading fields of study (both undergraduate and graduate) were: engineering (10,682), humanities (9,472), natural and physical sciences (6,737) and social sciences (6,432). As for the Americans studying abroad, the largest number attended institutions in Canada (1,666), the United Kingdom (1,164), Germany (1,157) and France (1,104). Copies of the report may be obtained from the Institute for International Education, 1 East 67th Street, New York 21, New York; price 50 cents.

IN what promises to be an interesting experiment, Associated Colleges of Illinois has formed a Consolidated Business Management Service to assist its 24 member colleges to strengthen their business office operations and to help them develop new cooperative techniques of financial and business management, plant maintenance programming, and food service direction and planning. The new service, which is the result of eight months of study and experiment, will supplement and expand the association's current program of cooperative fund raising. According to the association's announcement, the first two or three years will be devoted primarily to projects dealing with problems in financial and business management, but the service hopes eventually also to develop cooperative ventures in the academic area. To be director of the Consolidated Business Management Service, the association has engaged Mr. Irwin K. French, former business manager of Middlebury and Wellesley Colleges and most recently executive director of the National Federation Consulting Service.

THE so-called "corporate alumnus program," pioneered by the General Electric Company just four years ago, seems to be catching on fast. Sixty-nine companies are now matching the gifts their employees make to colleges and universities, and more are contemplating doing so in the future. Source of this information is the American Alumni Council's pamphlet "Matching Gift Programs of Business and Industry," which

lists the 69 companies and describes their variations on a theme. Copies have already been sent to all colleges, but the Alumni Council will be happy to mail additional free copies, within reason, to any institution that would like to send the pamphlet to trustees who are in a position to persuade their companies to go and do likewise. The Alumni Council's address: 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 8, D. C.

It has long seemed evident that if there is one certifiable, grade-A fact in this world of education, it is that the nation faces a perfectly appalling shortage of teachers. Recently however we had news from Northwestern University that makes us wonder whether the prognosticators have not been leading us up the garden path. It seems that last spring the undergraduates on the Evanston campus were asked what they intended to do after completing their education. Teaching, and what the announcement from the university called somewhat enigmatically "related educational fields," emerged as by far the most popular vocational choice. Of the 3,561 students taking part in the poll, 1,109—*more than 31 per cent*—said they intended to become educators. Of such figures are not shortages made. The other professions, obviously headed for second-class citizenship, claimed the allegiance of the Northwestern undergraduates roughly as follows: engineering, math and science, 19 per cent; business, 13 per cent; medicine, dentistry, nursing and related fields, 11 per cent; entertainment (music, theater, TV), 9 per cent; journalism, writing and advertising, 8 per cent; law, 5 per cent; others, 5 per cent. The conclusion seems inescapable that the country had better stop worrying about the teacher shortage and concern itself instead about an impending dearth of business executives—and possibly too about a glut of talent in the performing arts. We would like to be the first to sound the alarm.

THE Educational Testing Service announces that it will offer, for 1960-61, two more research fellowships in psychometrics leading to the Ph.D. degree at Princeton University. The fellowships, which are open to men who are acceptable to the graduate school of the university, carry stipends of \$2,650 a year and are renewable. Fellows will be engaged in part-time research in the general area of psychological measurement at the offices of the Educational Testing Service and will in addition carry a normal program of study in the graduate school. The closing date for completing applications is 1 January 1960. Further information and

application blanks may be obtained from: Director, Psychometric Fellowship Program, Educational Testing Service, 20 Nassau Street, Princeton, New Jersey.

EVERYONE knows about the revolutionary impact of television on education, but have you heard about the "teaching machine" invented by Professor B. F. Skinner of Harvard? This newest of instructional devices is described in a recent report of the Committee on Utilization of College Teaching Resources of the Fund for the Advancement of Education: "Briefly, it is a method of presenting to the student material printed on paper tape to which he responds by writing on an exposed piece of another tape. After he has written his response, he moves a lever which exposes the correct response and simultaneously moves his written answer under a transparent cover, where he can see but not revise it. The operation of the machine permits return of any given material to the student after the entire tape has been exposed if he has judged his first response to it to be incorrect. However, the material on any tape is so constructed that students are helped to arrive at knowledge of the right answer. Each question is based on earlier ones and the steps from the previously known to the previously unknown are so small that a student is 'led' to progressive mastery of content and understanding of the subject. A second technique in programming a subject for learning on the machine is called 'vanishing,' which involves presentation of a complete item, as for example a poem to be memorized, and the subsequent removal of increasing portions of the item until the student is able to reproduce the entire item without a prompt. The 'leading' technique is useful in teaching material in which reasoning is the most important factor; the 'vanishing' technique that in which memory is primary." Teachers may be reassured to know that while the committee is impressed with the potential of the machine as an aid in the learning process, it does not envision the device as a replacement for teaching personnel.

A STUDY of "Parking Practices on College Campuses in the United States" has been issued by Iowa State College, and may be obtained from that institution's Engineering Experiment Station for 50 cents. The report is primarily a compilation of data on how 125 institutions of differing sizes and types of control handle parking on their campuses: While it presents no cure-all solutions (there are none, says the writer, L. H. Csanyi), it gives a good over-all view of the different methods that are

being used to deal with this increasingly troublesome problem. One sound piece of advice contained in the study: Institutions at which the situation is getting out of hand would be well advised to hire a competent consultant to make a traffic analysis.

FOUR colleges and universities have notified the Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization that they are starting courses in survival education—for credit. They are McNeese State College in Louisiana, North Texas State College, the University of San Diego College for Men and the University of Delaware. While differing in name and specific content, the courses are all designed to prepare students to cope with both natural disasters and atomic attack. In addition, Brigham Young University has announced that it is offering fifteen non-credit courses in civil defense, including one for civil defense instructors, and others in such fields as basic rescue work, basic auxiliary police work and emergency sanitation.

WHILE thinking ourselves relatively free from illusions, we were rather shaken not long ago by a list of the nation's best-selling books since 1895, cited in a Fund for the Republic report entitled "Taste and the Censor in Television." Would you have guessed that the list includes, in addition to three inspirational works, two cookbooks, one baby book, *Gone With the Wind* and *God's Little Acre*, no fewer than seven works penned by Mickey Spillane? The argument the list was intended to buttress—that "the general public has seldom shown any great interest in high art"—would seem to be confirmed in spades. The same report, incidentally, contains another piece of bracing intelligence: It seems that when a chimpanzee named J. Fred Muggs was a featured performer on an early-morning network television program, he regularly received more than 1,000 pieces of mail a week. To those who are inclined to ask what *this* item has to do with education, we cheerfully retort: Nothing—if all of Mr. Muggs' correspondents were of his own kind.

Among the Colleges

Alaska Methodist University has started construction of its first academic building and a circular auditorium. The new university will open its doors to students in September 1960.

Anderson College has established its first endowed professorial chair with a \$50,000 gift from an alumna, Miss Nina Powell. The Walter Haldeman Chair of Religious Education is named after one of the school's most distinguished professors.

Beloit College has been given 26 paintings by Charles H. Morse of Lake Forest, Illinois, a life trustee of the school, who has one of the largest private art collections in the Midwest. Mr. Morse and his wife collected the paintings over a period of 25 years, for much of which time they lived in Germany.

Bucknell University is undertaking, in cooperation with nine public school systems and with the aid of a grant of \$105,000 from the Ford Foundation, a three-year program entitled the Upper Susquehanna Valley Education Research Program, which is designed to bring teachers up to date on subject matter, to improve their teaching methods, and to try new curricula and teaching aids.

Carleton College initiated this fall a plan for one semester of independent study abroad. Students chosen for this program will spend fourteen weeks in Europe: six weeks living in London with English families, two weeks of travel and six more weeks living with families in Vienna, Paris or Madrid, depending upon which language the students know. The project is being carried out in cooperation with the Experiment in International Living.

Chatham College is seeking to emphasize the liberal element in preparation for both elementary and secondary teaching by offering prospec-

tive teachers the regular liberal arts program leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science, with a major in a preferred subject field, together with the required professional hours for certification. This plan is supported by statistics from the National Education Association showing that, in 1955-56, 48 per cent of new teachers came from public general colleges and universities, 32 per cent from private institutions and just 20 per cent from special teachers' colleges.

City College of the City of New York has received a \$50,000 grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York to support a five-year experimental program to attract and train graduate students as college teachers. About twenty Carnegie fellows were appointed to teach during the recent summer session in the departments of economics, English, government, psychology, speech and sociology. The summer session was chosen because it is almost wholly an undergraduate program, similar to what the prospective teachers will encounter in their first post-doctoral jobs, and because fellows will have to take relatively little time off from their own studies.

College of Wooster has received \$1,000,000 in securities from an anonymous donor for the construction of a new library. Another donor, Mr. Paul O. Peters of Washington, D. C., recently promised to give his life-long collection of 90,000 books and documents to the college. Along with a number of first editions, works on American history and complete series of government documents, the collection includes a copy of the *Penny Gazette* for 1831-32, the first cultural magazine to be published in the United States.

Columbia University is planning to build an arts center estimated to cost between \$6,000,000 and \$7,000,000, which will include a laboratory of electronic music and an animation laboratory.

Cornell University has established a professorship in Christian thought in response to a growing interest in religion among its students. This professorship, made possible by a grant from the Danforth Foundation, will mark the second of a series of steps toward a broad, interdepartmental program of religious studies. The first step, the offering of courses in biblical and Hebrew studies, has attracted a high enrolment.

Dickinson College faculty members have instituted an annual arts award to recognize distinguished achievement in the arts, letters or humanities, and trustees have endowed it in tribute to retiring president William W. Edel. First recipient of the award—consisting of a medallion and \$1,000 in cash—was Robert Frost, 85-year-old dean of contemporary American poets and four times winner of the Pulitzer Prize for poetry.

Earlham College started this September, in cooperation with Antioch College, a three-year program for the development of non-Western studies. The joint project, supported by a \$35,000 grant from the Ford Foundation, includes both an undergraduate program and a series of faculty seminars devoted to Asian social, political and cultural questions.

Finch College will establish four study centers abroad next year as part of a new European program. Students in their junior year will spend ten weeks each in London, Madrid, Paris and Rome, where instruction will be given by European instructors who are fluent in English.

Idaho State College and the Peabody Museum of Harvard University sponsored this summer a joint expedition to do excavation work on a prehistoric cave site in Idaho.

Lewis and Clark College has received a valuable collection of authentic biblical coins from Mrs. Florence Aiken Banks of Roseburg.

Michigan State University dedicated last May its new \$1,500,000 Kresge Art Center. During the ceremony Mr. Sebastian S. Kresge was presented with a gold medal, which is given annually to the person who has done most in the preceding year for art in Michigan.

Muskingum College started last March the construction of its new library, which is estimated to cost \$375,000, plus \$125,000 for books and equipment. When completed the library will have seating capacity for 400 students and space for 120,000 books.

New York University's Institute of Fine Arts will establish an arts conservation center in 1960, with the support of a gift of \$500,000 from the Rockefeller Foundation. The center, which will be the only one of its kind in America, will bring together the specialties of art historian,

curator, conservator and scientist in a program of research and professional training in the field of conservation of works of art. More than \$20,000,000 is spent annually on the purchase of works of art in the United States and the value of American collections is in the billions, but care of these collections has fallen far behind available resources, so that the artistic heritage of the future is imperilled. A four-year course of study for conservation specialists at the center will include research in art history and archaeology, research and practical experience in conservation, and courses in museum training and connoisseurship.

Occidental College inaugurated this fall a college honors program of enriched and advanced studies for superior students, both juniors and seniors. The core of the program is interdisciplinary seminars of about fifteen students and three professors. Many of the students in this curriculum will also participate in an expanded departmental honors program in which a student may carry out advanced studies in the field of his major.

Princeton University has received a grant from an anonymous alumnus, which will enable it to award annually four prizes of \$1,250 for distinguished secondary school teaching in the state of New Jersey. Each of the state's 350 public, private and parochial secondary schools may nominate one teacher for the awards.

Queens College, North Carolina, will receive a gift of \$360,000 from manufacturer-philanthropist Charles A. Dana of New York City if it can raise an equal amount by 1 March 1960. The funds will be used to construct a new classroom building of modern design, to renovate the existing science and administration buildings and to increase the endowment.

Rollins College has established, with the aid of a gift of \$40,000 from Mr. A. G. Bush, an experimental senior course aimed at leading students to evaluate their academic experience by logical criteria of value and to develop a coherent philosophy of life. During the next two years, Dr. F. S. C. Northrop, professor of philosophy and law at Yale University will take part in the course as a visiting professor.

Saint Louis University will celebrate its 150th anniversary in 1968. To mark the event, a development council of 180 leading citizens of St.

Louis has launched a ten-year, \$46,000,000 development program for the university, including an initial five-year campaign for \$18,000,000. Besides physical expansion the plan calls for faculty development through increasing the operating income of the institution and by adding to the endowed chairs in the various schools.

Sarah Lawrence College has received a \$250,000 grant from the Field Foundation: \$150,000 for scholarships, to be used at the rate of \$30,000 a year for the next five years, and \$100,000 for the expansion program of the college. The late Marshall Field was a member of the board of trustees.

Southwestern at Memphis has received from Mr. and Mrs. W. B. Dunham a plaster copy of the Rosetta Stone, discovered near Memphis, Egypt in 1799. The original stone, which enabled scholars to decipher Egyptian hieroglyphics, was seen by the Dunhams in the British Museum.

Stanford University has established in its music department an "archive of recorded sound," supported partially by university funds and partially by private donors. The archive has made a start with nearly 10,000 discs and 139 tapes, as well as cylinders dating from Thomas Edison's earliest recording activities. It includes recordings ranging from performances by famous musicians to historic speeches of the past twenty years.

Union College, New York, has received a grant of \$20,000 from the Ford Foundation, for the conduct of a five-year research program in public affairs, governmental and political processes and public policies. Its basic purposes will be to emphasize the relationship between research and teaching and to encourage research in public affairs.

University of Bridgeport has started a teacher-training program for housewives who have young children and who would like to teach on the elementary school level. Candidates must be college graduates with a bachelor's degree in the liberal arts. The three-year program, called "internship in elementary education," is set up so that a minimum number of classroom hours will be required in the earlier portions of the training period: a two-hour period one day a week in the first year, approximately three hours during the second year and four hours in the

third year. In addition classroom observation in selected elementary schools will be required for one day a week during the first year, one and a half days in the second year and two days in the third. In the last year there will also be a ten-week period of practice teaching. Successful completion of the three-year program will lead to a recommendation to the State Department of Education for certification to teach in elementary schools and will also satisfy the major part of the university's requirements for the Master of Science degree.

University of North Dakota has established an institute for Indian studies designed to study Indian problems, preserve Indian culture and sponsor an exchange of opinion on these problems between American Indians and non-Indians.

University of Pennsylvania has added to its South Asia Regional Studies Library a gift from the government and people of Pakistan of 75 books and other publications relating to that country.

University of Rochester has received a \$100,000 grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York for the expansion of the university's inter-departmental non-Western civilizations program.

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Our Contributors

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former business executive and educational administrator, is a consultant in institutional finance and public relations.

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a graduate of the University of Buffalo and Harvard University, is professor of higher education at the University of Minnesota and has spent most of her working life in educational research.

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scholar, teacher and administrator, is executive director emeritus of the Association of American Colleges and former editor of this journal.

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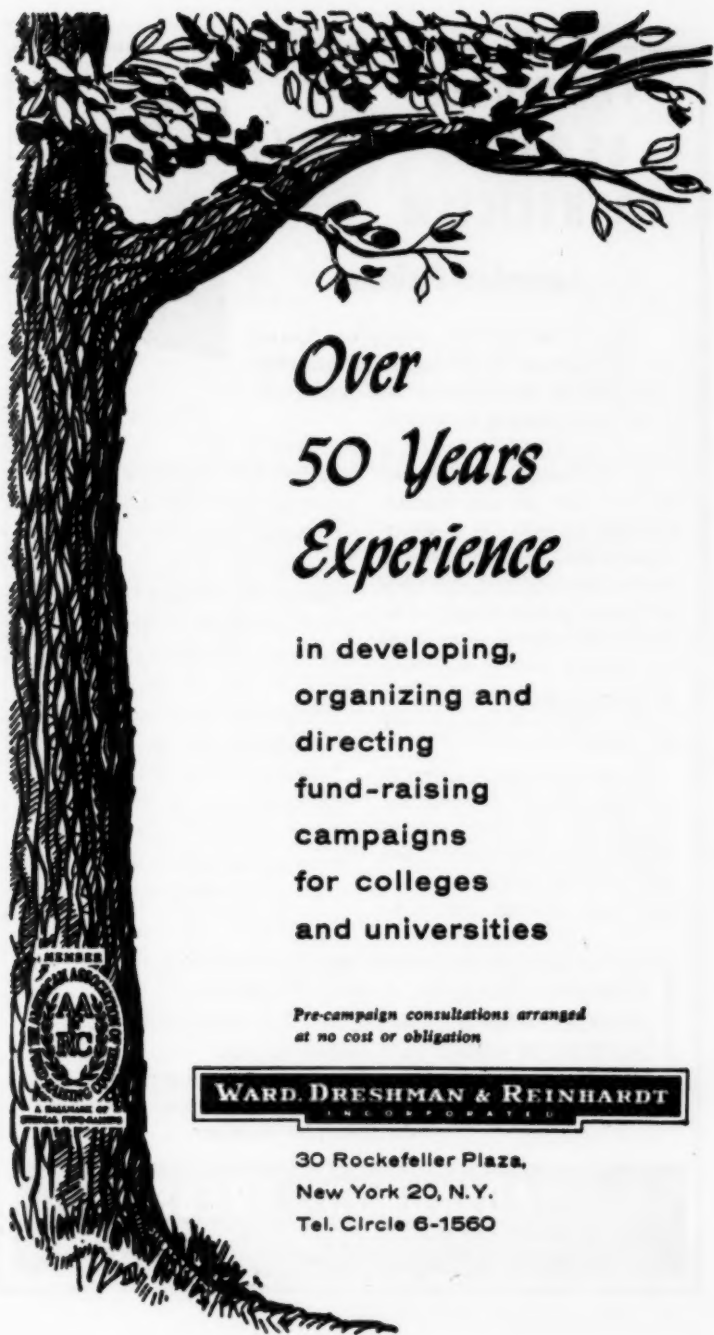
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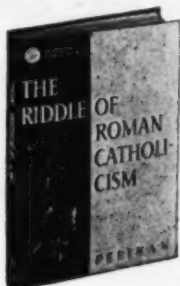
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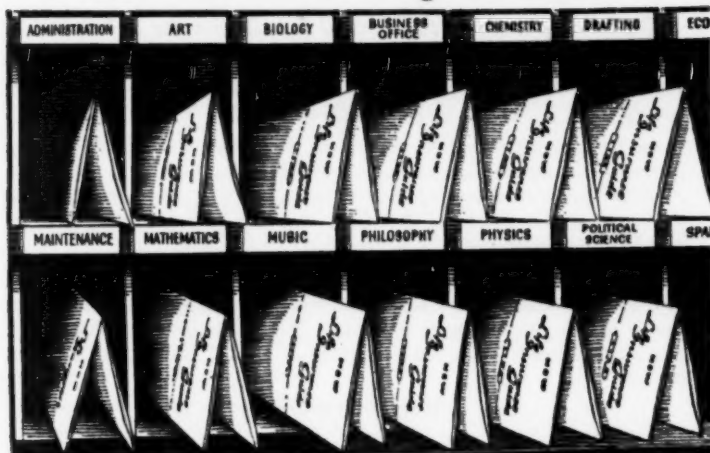
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